The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 5, 1899.

The Week.

"Santiago" we were glad to see inscribed alongside "Manila" on the beautiful arch at Madison Square. It was emphatically a Dewey celebration, but its pathetic side was the comparative neglect of Admiral Sampson which it threw into such strong relief. The latter's work, as a mere display of technical naval skill, was far more difficult than Dewey's, and only the chance absence of a spectacular element, as concerned his own personal part in the battle of Santiago, prevented Sampson from being deliriously made the great hero of the war. He was out of the actual fight just as strictly in the line of duty as Dewey was when standing on the Olympia's bridge; and, as Capt. Mahan has shown, the credit of the victory, which was the infallible result of his holding the Spanish fleet in a grip of steel for six weeks, was as surely his as if he had fired every gun with his own hand. But the yelping of the yellow press confused the public mind, and the smirch of politics did the rest; with the result that this able and faithful and remarkably successful officer has been deprived of his deserved tribute of popular praise.

From the judicious, however, whose praise is the only kind that counts in the long run, Admiral Sampson has had just recognition. His operations yield vastly more for the naval student than the battle of Manila. All the foreign attachés who were with him on the blockade have spoken in the highest terms of his organizing and directing ability, and of the skill and tenacity with which the Spanish ships were held, like so many rabbits in their burrows, until forced to bolt desperately to certain destruction. This was monotonous work, but it exhibited naval efficiency in the highest degree, and only the unlucky chance which kept the flag-ship out of the final scene prevented Sampson from rivalling if not eclipsing Dewey's fame. Fortunately, Admiral Sampson has philosophy and magnanimity enough to know where to look for appreciation—in his own sense of duty done and in the approval of the men who know, in our own naval service as well as that of other nations. As he himself writes in his *Century* article on Dewey, the men in the service know each other's merits, if the public does not; and in the warranted admiration of his fellow-officers he may well believe he has a solider and more lasting tribute than the fickle multitude could possibly give.

Admiral Dewey is rendering in peace a service to his country fairly comparable to the one he did her in war. He is putting our official speech-making in its proper light as an intolerable nuisance. Sparing of words himself, he dries up the fountains of perfunctory eloquence in others. Visiting committees from Chicago, from Philadelphia, even from Vermont, quail before the warning glitter of his eye, and die with all their music in them. It is the Admiral's robust practicality and saving sense of humor that lead him, by both example and precept, to silence the oratorical fire which opens upon him all along the line. And his long-suffering countrymen watch him doing it with delight and applause. He is the very conqueror of rhetoricians that we were all pining for without knowing it. But what a pity it is that he could not have begun his wet-blanketing of orators in the person of our noble Mayor. That official's address to the Admiral on Saturday was probably the most tremendous hoight of foine language that any Irishman ever put into the mouth of a Hollander. It was filled with such inimitable touches as "your deferential respect for those of your mother's sex." Such delicacy of phrase has not been seen since Thackeray managed to convey an interesting bit of information in a way, as he proudly asserted, not to bring a blush to the cheek of the most refined British matron, by explaining that a certain lady was "about to become a grandmother."

Next to doing a thing is the honor of having named the man to do it, and for this honor, as respects Dewey's appointment to the Asiatic station, many are now contending. It was Roosevelt, it was Senator Proctor, it was the prescient "W. McK." But Secretary Long's plain tale puts them all down. The original appointment in the fall of 1897 was simply a matter of department routine. Records were sifted and compared, special abilities were balanced, and Dewey was chosen on pure grounds of naval seniority and merit. No doubt there was a good deal of advice given, volunteered or invited. No doubt Assistant Secretary Roosevelt, as he then was, went shouting about the corridors that Dewey was the man to sail into Manila. But if the real decision had been made for any other reasons than those Secretary Long indicates, it would have been subversive of the traditions of the department and a blow to the navy. Our naval service is the purest application of the merit system exhibited in all our government; and the results speak for themselves. Politicians would like to get their clutches upon it; but so far they have been beaten off, and let us hope they always will be.

Newspaper-readers have been impressed with the length and particularity of the frequent dispatches in which Gen. Otis has reported to the authorities at Washington so-called engagements in the Philippines, which appeared to be nothing more than skirmishes hardly worth mention. Officials of the War Department are becoming alarmed over the immense amount of matter in the shape of official reports which is coming by mail. One who is familiar with the military literature of the civil war is quoted as expressing the opinion that the official records of the present war, when published in complete form, will eclipse the enormous number of volumes that contain the records of the war of the rebellion. He says that he "never saw such verbose reports of engagements as are now coming in from the Philippines," page after page being filled with recounting minute details of the most insignificant skirmish. The official papers come in, sackfuls at a time. How insignificant these skirmishes are is shown by the list of towns captured and abandoned several times apiece by Gen. Otis, in a letter of the Chicago *Record's* correspondent.

President Schurman's address at Ithaca on Thursday laid down some perfectly sound principles of colonial policy. We must drop at once the mistaken idea that we are going to make any money out of the colonies; we must "govern" them as little as possible, and steadily pursue the plan of "hands off!" with an eye towards "ultimate independence"; we must do everything for the good of the natives, and never think of our own advantage; we must have a colonial civil service of the purest and most capable. There was much else of this abstract definition of what our policy should be, but, in the light of what our policy really is and is likely to be, the whole address reads curiously like a speech *in vacuo*. Perhaps, however, it would be impossible for a man still holding President McKinley's commission to advance more directly to an attack upon the methods and announced purposes of that official. The facts and the daily news make glaring enough the contrast between what Mr. Schurman says should be done and what McKinley orders to be done.

One item in the Philippine news is comic, or tragic, as we may please to read it. The Tagals of Mindanao offer to accept our sovereignty provided we will undertake to protect them from the "harassing Moros." But who are the harassing Moros? Why, they are our own

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friends and allies of the Sulu Islands, whom we ourselves turned loose on the Tagals of Mindanao. Have people already forgotten the jubilant dispatch of a few weeks ago, recounting how our new "ally," one of the Moro "Dattos," had gone over to Mindanao and was killing the Tagals right and left? It was Mohammedans slaughtering Christians, but what of that, so long as the Mohammedans were flying the American flag? It is clear, however, that what the Tagals are now asking us is to deliver them from our own marauders. There seems to be a moral confusion about this; but we must get used to such things in the Philippine situation, which continually turns all our political and moral and religious ideas topsy-turvy. The Tagals ought to insist upon our observing what John Morley calls the "etiquette of slaughter." He used the phrase apropos of the English Government's announcement that no native troops—no Gurkhas or Sikhs—would be taken from India for service against the Boers. "If a Christian is to be killed, at all events it will be a comfort to him that he is killed by as good a Christian as himself." This is the only comfort the Tagals ask, and it seems as if it would be easy for a Methodist President to call off his Mohammedan butchers.

The Venezuela arbitration has resulted, as was to have been expected, in a decision which is in the nature of a compromise. Great Britain loses some of the territory she had claimed, but is awarded a good deal of what Venezuela maintained was lawfully hers. This result will leave a large part of our newspaper and Congressional argument and assertion of 1895 looking particularly silly. Senator Lodge was, of course, able to draw the true boundary line out of his head, and to show that England was grabbing land which was not hers in order to get more gold so as to break down our double standard. And no editor worthy the name would then confess to not knowing all about the controversy, just where the Schomburgk line ran, just what "the Dutch archives" showed, and what the Spanish secret records "proved." It was, in fact, on the basis of such cock-sure and extemporized knowledge that we were all eager to go to war. But the Paris tribunal has swept away all that rubbish, though it cannot sweep away our silliness of that crazy period. But to get a peaceable decision, in which all will acquiesce, is the main thing; and the result must be scored as one more triumph for arbitration.

The Hawaiian view of modern missionary work is of especial interest, considering the history of the islands. It appears that there has been a great change in the attitude of the community towards this matter. The children of the early missionaries to a large extent followed in the footsteps of their parents, while those who went into business became liberal contributors to the support of the work. The situation at the end of the century is very different from what it was fifty years ago. The *Hawaiian Gazette* sums it up in the statement that "few of the Hawaiian-born descendants of the early missionaries choose to be missionaries, and only $30,000 is annually furnished by the descendants of the missionaries and their associates towards giving the Gospel to the great numbers of 'heathen' before our eyes." What explains this transformation? The theory of the *Gazette* is that the altered view of the "heathen" and of the missionary work which is now held by religious people generally has much to do with it—especially the loss of the old theory that "saving the heathen" meant saving people from everlasting punishment, and the substitution of the theory that mission work means the education and enlightenment of all men in all lands, without dreadful apprehensions about their "everlasting" condition. That such a change should "fix the present attitude of the descendants of the missionaries towards missions" in Hawaii, as the *Gazette* thinks is the case, may not seem strange to us, but how such a state of things would surprise the original missionaries to the Sandwich Islands if they could know it!

Still another change of view regarding missions found illustration during the sessions of the International Congregational Council at Boston. The Rev. Dr. Lyman Abbott gave frank expression to the belief that missions conducted on the old basis of sending men and women among the heathen to preach the Gospel have proved practically a failure, and that the first step in Christianizing a savage race should be to establish order and the reign of law through forcible conquest. A year ago such doctrine would have been received with something akin to horror in any religious assembly, but so many good people have endorsed such a war in the Philippines that no immediate protest was made. Before the end of the Council, however, more than one voice was raised in indignation. The Rev. Ralph W. Thompson, senior foreign secretary of the London Missionary Society, in discussing the adaptation of methods to new conditions in foreign countries, referred to Dr. Abbott's characterization of the mission stations in Africa as glow-worms amid darkness, and insistence that the railroad, the store, and the reign of law must come before the Gospel, if Africa was to be evangelized, and for his own part said, "I venture to suggest that this is not true in experience, and that a much simpler, and in the end much less expensive, way of doing things could be found." The Rev. Otis Cary, who has been a missionary in Japan, made an address in which he styled Dr. Abbott's paper "the terrible blow struck at foreign missions," and said that Dr. Thompson's protest against it "had raised a great weight from his heart." He maintained that the Abbott doctrine meant nothing else than armed subjugation, and declared that the alleged necessity of this policy was disproved by many facts in ancient and modern history, by Madagascar, by Hawaii, by Micronesia, by Samoa, and other places where heathen people have been Christianized without military conquest, as well as by the Wesleyan missionaries who have converted cannibals to Christianity. It is an interesting fact that both of these protests against evangelizing the heathen by force called out rounds of applause.

The issue in the Iowa campaign becomes each week more and more clearly that of imperialism. State questions have dropped out of sight. In fact, the Republican administration of the State government during the past two years has been so good that the Democrats find nothing to make a handle of in attacking it. Last year there was a floating debt of about half a million, which the Democrats denounced as "unconstitutional," but now there is a surplus on hand of about a quarter of a million, which is steadily growing, while the tax levy has been reduced. Both Mr. White and the Democratic State committee are devoting themselves to the new issue in national politics. Three-fourths of the speeches of the Democratic orators are given up to denunciation of the war in the Philippines and to attacks on the policy of the McKinley Administration, and four-fifths of the work of the State committee is directed to the same end. An especial attempt is made to win support from Germans and other voters of foreign descent who are opposed to militarism, but the Democrats are greatly hampered in this effort by the fact that the Germans, who constitute the most important element of this vote, are even more strongly opposed to free coinage, which the Democratic candidate for Governor favors, although he now says little about it.

The Nebraska Republicans have attempted to formulate a new issue. Their recent State convention adopted a resolution that "we commend to the thoughtful consideration of the Republican party of the nation the proposition that a national convention be called by two-thirds of the States to revise the Constitution of the United States, under the provisions of article v. of the Federal Constitution." Two methods of changing the fundamental law of the nation are provided in the

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instrument. One is the proposal of amendments by two-thirds of both houses of Congress; the other, the calling of a convention for proposing amendments on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the States—the amendments in either case to become part of the Constitution when ratified by the Legislatures in three-fourths of the States or by conventions in three-fourths, as one or the other mode may be proposed by Congress. The chief argument for the Nebraska scheme of calling a convention to revise the Constitution by the Legislatures of two-thirds of the States, rather than submitting amendments after two-thirds of the Senate and House have proposed them, is that two-thirds of the Senate can never be induced to favor the choice of Senators by the people; while it is also urged that a provision authorizing an income tax could be much more easily secured through a convention; that such a convention would enable the country to deal with the question of colonial possessions, and would give the opportunity for embodying in the Constitution various desirable reforms, like a provision giving the President authority to veto any item in an appropriation bill, another divorcing the legislative from the appointive power, and still another laying a solid foundation for a civil service based on competency and merit.

It does not seem likely that this Nebraska notion will command much popular favor. The great trouble is that, like many other projects, its promoters leave human nature out of the account. It might be a most fortunate thing for the nation if the forty-five States would pick out their most statesmanlike citizens and commission them to revise the fundamental law of the republic. But every sensible person knows that any constitutional convention which might be convened would be made up for the most part of very different material. The delegates, while ostensibly chosen by the people, would be largely named by such bosses as Platt in New York, Quay in Pennsylvania, Hanna in Ohio, and Tanner in Illinois, among Republican States, and by the very cheap type of politicians whom Bryanism has brought to the front in Democratic States. Such a body would be capable of almost any degree of folly. There is not the slightest reason in the world to suppose that its conclusions would be ratified by three-fourths of the States, so that in the end nothing would probably come of it; but a fruitless meeting of a body which did not command public confidence would be a discreditable spectacle. We might have a better Constitution. Sometimes it seems as though it would be better if changes could be made more easily than is now possible. But most students of our problems finally come to the conclusion that we are far better off as things are than we should be if amendments could be carried without the overwhelming demand for them which is now requisite to secure their adoption.

Bryan is quite justified in poking fun at the Nebraska Republicans, as he did in his speech on Wednesday week, for the resolution on the financial question in their platform this year, which he characterized as "one of the most unique and delightfully original planks ever written." Among other things, this resolution says that the people of the United States, by a majority of more than 500,000, decided in favor of the gold standard, "after more than twenty years of harmful agitation." Bryan pointed out that, during this period of what the Republicans now call "harmful agitation," Mr. McKinley himself voted for independent bimetallism at the ratio of 16 to 1; that Republican platforms endorsed it, and condemned Grover Cleveland for opposing it; that "even in 1896 the whole Republican party declared against the gold standard, and pledged itself to beg Europe to help this country to let go of it"; and that an expensive commission was sent by Mr. McKinley to Europe, to try to get rid of the gold standard. In short, he maintained that the Republican party in Nebraska this year is condemning its President and all its past conventions for all their authoritative utterances of the past twenty years.

There is a great deal of truth in this indictment. It is only nine years since the Republicans of Nebraska adopted a platform which commended their party for having given to the people "an elastic currency of gold, silver, and paper," and declared that "its efforts to fully remonetize silver should be continued until it is on a perfect equality as a money metal with gold." A year later Mr. McKinley was making demagogical speeches, in which he complained that "during all of his [Cleveland's] years at the head of the government he was dishonoring one of our precious metals, one of our great products, discrediting silver, and enhancing the price of gold"; and made it an especial grievance that throughout his first administration Cleveland had persistently used his power to stop the coinage of silver dollars, and make "money the master, everything else the servant." Nothing that Bryan can say about the attitude of Mr. McKinley and of the Nebraska Republicans during that period can be too severe. But it does not help the Democrats to ridicule the Republicans for past folly and demagogism. McKinley and the Nebraska Republicans have at last got on the right platform, while Bryan and the Nebraska Democrats are as far wrong in 1899 as both parties in that State were in 1890.

The President's approval, without modification, of the verdict of the court-martial in Capt. Carter's case, coming after what seemed such an inexcusably long delay, has especial value in one direction. It disposes finally of the charge that Capt. Carter was convicted unfairly. Surely no man ever had fuller opportunities to prove that he had not been allowed a fair trial. He was found guilty by unanimous vote of a court-martial which included some of the best officers in the army. After conviction, the evidence and the findings in the case were submitted to ex-Senator Edmunds for review, and he made a report which has never been published, but which was presumably unfavorable to Carter. The case was then carefully examined by Attorney-General Griggs, who is a trained lawyer, and after that another trained lawyer, Wayne MacVeagh, was permitted to make as able a plea as he could, and as could be made by any one, in favor of the Captain. Finally, the case came before Secretary Root, who is also a trained lawyer. Of course, the results of all this investigation and thought by lawyers, familiar with the rules of evidence in civil courts, were laid before the President. They all bore directly upon the question of a fair trial. In addition were notorious political influences, powerfully exerted in favor of a commutation of the sentence, in case the verdict could not be set aside. After all this the President approves the verdict in full.

That Spain as well as France is threatened by her own army, appears in the fall of the Silvela Ministry on a question of military expenditures. Of all ill-timed demands, that to increase the outlay on fortifications and equipment of the army, to say nothing of new regiments and new war-ships, seems most preposterous, in Spain's circumstances. She is bankrupt; the taxes necessary to carry on the civil government are almost crushing an impoverished people, so that riots in protest against their collection are occurring in various parts of the kingdom; chambers of commerce are calling in unison for retrenchment in public expenses; yet the army chiefs choose this moment to demand extra credits for military purposes, and there is in the background the threat of a revolution and a military dictatorship. Of course, this is all put forward by Polavieja and the other generals as absolutely necessary for the safety of the nation and the "honor of the army"; but the melancholy probability is that Spaniards will find, with Frenchmen, that the honor of their army means the ruin of their country.

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THE ADMIRAL.

Putting aside all that was hollow and merely theatric or humbugging in the greetings extended last week in this city to Admiral Dewey; ignoring for the moment the obvious eagerness of Tammany to make money, and of the Republicans to make party capital, out of the celebration—smiling at all these things as unimportant details—what are the reasons why full-grown men and lovers of their country and their kind should be glad that the "heart of a people beats with one desire," and should take their part, in their own way, in acclaiming the man who suddenly made a splendid name?

First in order of time must be reckoned, of course, his great service as a man called by professional duty to do a stern piece of work. Such absurdly extravagant things have been said of the battle of Manila Bay, such foolish comparisons made between it and the really great naval battles of history, that one is tempted, in sheer reaction, to forget how brilliant it was in conception, and with what calculated and judicious recklessness it was fought. It is this aspect of Dewey's exploit which stamps him as a great commander, who would have been as cool and at the same time daring, as calm in nicely weighing force against force and swiftly striking home with all his might, if his antagonist had been as formidable as he was in fact feeble. If he showed contempt for Spanish watchfulness and readiness, it was only a justified contempt based on knowledge, like Drake's when he boldly sailed into Cadiz harbor and spent an audacious day "singeing the King of Spain's beard." Dewey at Manila was simply the incarnate tradition of Anglo-Saxon seamanship, renewing in his own person the principles of Nelson and Farragut that "the boldest measures are the safest," and that "something must be left to chance."

Even yet we may not be able to see clearly how much his sharp and crushing blow at Manila did to shorten the war. In a sense he could say, as Jervis did at St. Vincent, when he flung his fifteen ships against the twenty-seven of the Spaniards, that a victory was "essential" for his country at that moment. It was essential to hearten his countrymen by a display, at the very beginning of the war, of the historic dash and bravery of the American sailor, and to show that the sea power of Spain was a hollow sham. No one can estimate the value of his demonstration at Manila in nerving Sampson and his men, during the long and lonely vigils of the blockade off Santiago. They had but to think of Dewey's feat to be certain that, when their own supreme hour came, they would find their foe able to do little but die bravely. Thus the naval battle of Manila, by both breaking the spirit of Spain and showing this country the true measure of its enemy at sea, deserves grateful commemoration as perhaps the most powerful single event tending to bring the Spanish war to a speedy close.

But if Dewey was successful in battle, he was even more conspicuously successful in the trying weeks which followed. Confronted with the most difficult problems, he met them all with prompt courage and decision, and nobody has even been able to lay his finger on one mistake. "Your Admiral," said Capt. Chichester of the British man-of-war *Immortalité*, "accomplished by tact, firmness, and good judgment in Manila Bay what many naval men would have thought possible only by war. He is a great man." Greatest of all, we think, in the large humanity he exhibited. In him was fulfilled Nelson's prayer, as recorded in the last entry in his diary before going into battle at Trafalgar: "May humanity after victory be the predominant feature in the British fleet." Dewey made himself, during the weeks when he was in supreme control, as much beloved as his deadly gunnery on that May morning had made him feared. The Spaniards came to trust him as a friend. The Filipinos worshipped him. His own men, down to the grimiest stoker, idolized him. Such high qualities as, by their daily display in him, wrought this profound impression on friend and foe alike, are the Admiral's surest title to greatness; and his admiring countrymen are left to bitter reflections on the official blindness which refused to avail of his well-won prestige and demonstrated capacity, in order to let his gentleness and tact do what the blundering sword has so far failed to do.

It is, indeed, the revelation of Admiral Dewey's character after the battle which has most endeared him to his countrymen. It is not only the fighting man we welcome; it is the diplomatist, the statesman with large outlook, the kindly gentleman, the frank and fearless American. "I had their huzzas before," said Nelson, when leaving England just before Trafalgar; "now I have their hearts." So do we give our cheers to the man who fought so well; but our heartfelt thanks we reserve for the man who showed himself still greater, after victory, in the qualities which most adorn our poor humanity, whether in war or peace. "Long live your fine old English Admiral—yours, I mean—the U. S. A. one at Samoa," wrote Robert Louis Stevenson in 1889, when the news of the cool heroism of our sailors in the face of death at Apia reached him. "I wept tears and loved myself and mankind when I read of him. And there was Gordon, too; and there are others, beyond question." This is the real tribute to Dewey—that he fought like a paladin when fighting was his duty, but that afterwards he was great in gentleness; conciliated Spaniards and drew to himself the devotion of Filipinos; was considerate as he was vigilant, as kind as he was firm; and blazed high as an example of what the American naval service is at its best.

SCIENCE AND WAR.

A striking passage in Sir Michael Foster's Presidential Address, delivered before the British Association on September 13, touched upon the relations of science to international politics. Science has made wonderful contributions to the struggle between man and man; what has it done for the struggle between race and race, country and country? Sir Michael first referred to the way in which science makes for peace by rendering war tenfold more destructive. This is an old argument. It is worked out in great detail in M. Bloch's book on 'The Future of War.' By lending all its cunning to the art of war, science has made modern war so deadly that no one but a monster in the garb of a statesman could loose its appalling forces except under the direst necessity. Artillery fire is twenty times more effective than it was in 1870. The small-calibre rifle, with its flat trajectory and enormous range, would make the historic charges of infantry but a swift rush to annihilation. Exactly what a battle between two evenly matched and equally well-equipped armies would now be, military experts scarcely dare to say; but that it would be a scene of carnage beside which Waterloo or Gravelotte would seem like a parade-ground, they all admit. This is an old story, and Sir Michael Foster barely alluded to it in passing.

The original and most forcible part of his remarks on the influence of science upon war was that in which he pointed to the "deep undercurrent" in all branches of science which is "sapping the very foundations of all war." What he meant was the spirit of international amity and universal brotherhood. This, he maintained, is fostered by the modern methods of scientific inquiry and scientific progress perhaps more than by any other single influence. The reason why this is so we cannot do better than state in Sir Michael's own words:

> "As I have already urged, no feature of scientific inquiry is more marked than the dependence of each step forward on other steps which have been made before. The man of science cannot sit by himself in his own cave weaving out results by his own efforts, unaided by others, heedless of what others have done and are doing. He is but a bit of a great system, a joint in a great machine, and he can only work aright when he is in due touch with his fellow-workers. If his labor is to be what it ought to be, and is to have the weight which it ought to have, he must know what is being done, not by himself, but by others, and by others *not of his own* land and speaking his tongue only, but also of other lands and of other speech. Hence it comes about that to the man of science the barriers of manners and of speech which pen men into nations, become more and more unreal and indistinct. He recognizes his fellow-worker, wherever he may live and whatever tongue he may speak, as one who is pushing forward shoulder to shoulder

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with him towards a common goal, as one whom he is helping and who is helping him. The touch of science makes the whole world kin."

Examples of this international brotherhood of scientists illumine many a page of history that would otherwise lie in the unrelieved shadow of war and its desolations and ferocities. In 1813, when the relations between France and England were exceedingly embittered, when trade was embargoed, and French soil actually closed against all the English, one Englishman, a scientist, was received at Paris with enthusiasm. It was Sir Humphry Davy, who had expressed a wish to visit and study the extinct volcanoes of Auvergne. The French Imperial Institute laid the matter before Napoleon, who gave the desired permission for the philosophers of France to receive their English brother with warm cordiality. This very meeting of the British Association at Dover illustrated the persistence of this honorable tradition. A delegation of French scientists had arranged to cross the Channel to greet their British colleagues, and as their visit fell just at the moment when the silly talk of a Dreyfus boycott was loudest, the suggestion was prominently urged—even getting, by inference, into the London *Times*—that the French savants should be sent sternly about their business. But no such absurdity could find lodgment in the scientific mind, and the exchange of international courtesies was made all the more hearty.

The manifold forms of international scientific coöperation must have an influence, none the less weighty for being silent and almost unperceived, in breaking down the prejudices that exist between nations. "How can I hate a man whom I know?" asked Charles Lamb; and the science which draws members of different races together in congresses and in associations for the promotion of research, makes them better acquainted with each other, and so promotes mutual respect. Then there is something in the absolute mental honesty which science demands of her votaries, in their open-mindedness, in their willingness to reconsider a position in the light of new evidence, which is dead against the violent misunderstandings and rancorous impatience that lead to war. The true spirit of science is that of patient inquiry; of longing for the truth and nothing but the truth; of coöperation wide as the needs of man; of constructive effort through slow accretions by many laborers in many lands through many years of peace. This is the deep reason why true science is at war with war. Every scientific congress, every torch of science passed on from hand to hand over the seas and across the continents, ignoring the artificial barriers of race and country, is a silent protest against war, a constant reminder that war is an anachronism, a brute survival of the dark ages.

A CONSTITUTIONAL IMBROGLIO.

The diversity of character and interest in the smallest of the colonies is another illustration of the truth taught by Greek and Italian history, that it is not always the largest states that afford the most instructive data for political history. Mr. Bryce has expressed the same opinion of Rhode Island. "This singular little commonwealth," he says, "is, of all the American States, that which has furnished the most abundant analogies to the Greek republics of antiquity, and which deserves to have its annals treated of by a philosophic historian." A singular confirmation of these judgments is afforded by the present condition of the attempt to provide a new constitution for the State, which is set forth in a pamphlet by Mr. Amasa Eaton, published by the Rhode Island Constitutional League.

The existing Constitution, which was adopted in 1842, declares that "the basis of our political system is the right of the people to make and alter their constitutions of government." Nevertheless, the Supreme Court, in an "advisory opinion" given in 1883, laid it down that the General Assembly had no power to call a constitutional convention. This opinion was based largely on the fact that the Constitution gave no such power to the Assembly, while it did confer on that body the right to propose constitutional amendments which should become effective when approved by three-fifths of the electors. In the exercise of this power the Legislature authorized the Governor to appoint a commission of fifteen persons to revise the Constitution, and the report of this commission was submitted to the people as a constitutional amendment in 1898. It was rejected, and, when resubmitted with some changes in 1899, it was again rejected. So the matter now stands.

The Constitutional League is by no means content with this situation. It asserts that the people are deprived of a right not only guaranteed them by the present Constitution, but also superior to any constitution. To limit them to the approval or disapproval of any scheme not framed by themselves, is to deny them their right to make their own "constitution of government." To hold that the Legislature cannot call a constitutional convention is to make it impossible for the people to obtain any constitution except such a one as the Legislature chooses to submit to them. The people cannot spontaneously gather in convention and adopt a constitution offhand. Some formality of procedure is necessary, and none is possible. An organic statute adopted in 1842 is held to bind all future generations. A majority of the electors then living apparently succeeded not only in depriving their posterity of the right of making a constitution, but also in limiting the right of amendment to a fraction of the future electorate. A majority made the Constitution, but three-fifths must concur in order to change it.

Advisory opinions, it is contended, are not to be regarded. On several previous occasions the Supreme Court has given advisory opinions which it afterwards reversed when cases came before it in the due course of litigation. In one of these cases it was explicitly asserted that "The advice or opinion given by the Judges of this court, when requested, to the Governor or to either house of the Assembly, under the third section of the tenth article of the Constitution, is not a decision of this court; and, given as it must be without the aid which the court derives in adversary cases from able and experienced counsel, though it may afford much light from the reasonings or research displayed in it, can have no weight as a precedent." We may add that the Supreme Court of Massachusetts has taken the same ground, and protested against being compelled to give opinions without hearing argument. In fact, it intimated pretty broadly that such opinions are of very little value. Nevertheless, it seems doubtful if the Rhode Island Assembly will disregard the opinion which it has obtained, especially as that opinion tends to magnify its own prerogatives.

No doubt the provision that a constitution adopted by a majority vote shall be changed only when three-fifths of the electors are in favor of such change, is in apparent conflict with the principle of majority rule, and Mr. Eaton furnishes abundant historical proof that this principle is one of the fundamentals of the Rhode Island polity. In order to maintain his position, he exalts the sovereignty of the towns and depresses that of the State. Some such theory is required, indeed, in order to dispose of the Constitution of the United States. It is now established that that is an indissoluble league. The civil war settled that question. Even if a majority of the people of the United States wanted to end the government, they could not do it. They could not make a new constitution if they all wished it, nor can a majority of them amend the present one. Practically, at least, the same anomaly exists in the country at large as in the State of Rhode Island, and if it is in conflict with the principle that the majority must rule, so much the worse for that principle. It has its uses, but it has its limitations, and the latter are quite as important as the former. The provision that the Constitution of Rhode Island shall not be changed if two-fifths of the present electorate—much less than that part of the adult male population—are opposed, while in conflict with the

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doctrine of majority rule and with early Rhode Island institutions and precedents, is nothing unprecedented. Stability in political institutions is more important than consistency; and a strict application of the doctrine of majority rule would lead straight to the absurdities logically inherent in the system of Rousseau. It would forbid, indeed, the device of a constitutional convention, and require the direct action of the whole mass of citizens, which action might take place as often as revolutions occur in Venezuela. The South American republics furnish the best illustration of the practical results of Rousseau's theory.

We are not greatly impressed by the sufferings of the people of Rhode Island under the rule of their Legislature. If that body does not submit such amendments to the Constitution as are satisfactory to the electors, they can choose such legislators as will carry out their wishes. They would in any event have to choose delegates to a constitutional convention and accept or reject its work. The fact that the convention is the same body as the General Assembly is immaterial, provided the members are elected with reference to the particular issues involved. Let the Constitutional League give out its programme, and, if it pleases the people, they can choose a legislature pledged to submit it, as an amendment, to popular vote.

THE NEW GERMAN CODE.

The revolution which will occur in the laws of Germany at the beginning of the next year is the subject of an article in the October number of the *Forum*. The author, Prof. Sohm, is one of the members of the Code Commission, and his account of the changes effected will be found interesting not only by lawyers, but also by all students of social development. The Roman judicial code has been recognized as the common law of Germany since the close of the fifteenth century. Legal procedure of distinctively German character was confined to particular districts, and when the demands of commerce compelled uniformity, the *corpus juris civilis* was adopted. In the year 1495 the Reichskammergericht was organized, and it was decreed that the judgments of this highest court should be based on Roman law.

As this system came into use to meet the wants of commerce, so it has now been displaced because it failed to meet those wants. There has always been a struggle between the Roman and the customary law. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Roman law was supreme, but in the following ages the native law reasserted itself. By the early part of this century many of the German states had enacted their own law into codes. Their motto was, "Emancipation from the Latin code of Rome." The result was confusion. The German jurisconsults held to the Roman law as more scientific, and the states that adopted independent systems lost touch with the science of jurisprudence as a whole. The new systems were local, not national, and it was not until the empire united the Germans politically that legal uniformity became practicable. The enthusiasm aroused by the war with France overcame particularism, and the advantages of having one system of law for the whole empire were recognized. It has taken many years to create a code, but the work has been done, and henceforth the Roman law is relegated to the universities simply as a means of education. "The last relic of that grand fabric of laws which once dominated the whole world, crumbles to-day."

We can best understand the general characteristics of the new German code if we recall the influences which modified the English common law. We may sum up these influences by calling them the demands of business. Merchants insisted that debtors owning lands should satisfy their debts out of those lands, and the law of real estate was changed. They demanded that their customs in regard to commercial paper and its negotiability should be legalized, and they were legalized. They declared that possession should in certain cases be presumptive evidence of ownership, and so it became. These changes, which are ancient history in our law, have now, according to Prof. Sohm, established themselves in that of Germany. The new code is thoroughly modern in spirit, and this spirit is that of the merchant. It was among the merchants of the towns that the power arose which eventually crushed the spirit of feudalism, and the modern merchant may not inaptly be called "the father of the civil code of Germany."

There has been since 1861 a code governing commercial intercourse throughout Germany, but it related more to trading privileges than to commercial transactions in the broader sense. In the new code the feudal distinctions of classes are not recognized. It does not consider the farmer or the nobleman, but the individual as an "abstract unit"; that is, as the subject of rights of property. As to these rights he is a free agent. He can dispose of property and incur indebtedness. The protection of bona-fide acquisition of property is declared by Prof. Sohm to constitute the fundamental law of the new German code. Thus, in the case of movable, or what we should call personal, property, he who purchases in good faith from one in possession gets a good title, even if the seller was not the true owner. This is true of money, of obligations payable to bearer, and of things bought at auction. But, as in our own law, the maxim *caveat emptor* applies when property has been stolen. Even here, however, there is a limit to uncertainty of title, and ten years' possession establishes absolute ownership.

As regards land, the system of basing title on the official record, which has been carried to great perfection in this country, appears to be completely accepted in the German code. The history of that system, as here developed, has been peculiar. Our forefathers did not get it from the common law or from English precedent, for it has been very imperfectly recognized in England. It is maintained that the Pilgrim Fathers became acquainted with the system during their exile in Holland, and introduced it when they took possession of New England. However this may be, we are assured by Prof. Sohm that under the new code the title to land depends entirely on record, or official registration. All rights of property in land must appear in the *Grundbuch*, which is open to public inspection. Rights not entered here may be lost, for purchasers can deal in safety with owners of record, whether they be the rightful owners or not. From Prof. Sohm's account, we judge that the "Grundbuch" constitutes a complete record, and that it will not be necessary, as it is here, to examine the records of probate and other courts as well as those of the Registrar of Deeds. If our impression is correct, the German system resembles that which has been developed in the Australian colonies, and which is commonly known here as the Torrens system. Theoretically, at least, no more satisfactory scheme for establishing title to real estate has been devised. As to rights of inheritance, what we accomplish by letters of administration will be effected in Germany by the "certificate of inheritance." The possessor of this certificate is conclusively presumed to represent the decedent.

There are many particulars in which this code differs from our own body of law, and it does not undertake to supersede all the existing laws of the German Empire. Its regulations are not to conflict with certain classes of laws which have political relations. There are imperial laws intended to affect the condition of laborers as a class, and provincial laws which may be described as agrarian. These Prof. Sohm compares with the *Jus Civile* of the Romans; the new code is the *Jus Gentium*. The intercourse of the Romans with other peoples created their commercial code, and it is intercourse and exchange that have shaped that of the Germans. Its provisions signify that trade is to be facilitated; that exchange is not to be hampered by unregulated and latent claims of ownership. If this code is to be construed with the enlightened spirit displayed by Prof. Sohm in his exposition of it, it cannot fail to become a boon to merchants and a gain to civilization.

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AFTER DREYFUS.

GENEVA, September 20, 1899.

Now that the first storm of righteous indignation at the infamous verdict of Rennes has spent itself in newspaper paragraphs and resolutions of well-meaning philanthropists, we are able to think calmly once more, and to measure with some degree of justice the actual forces at work in the public life of France. That we can really understand them is impossible. The Frenchman is a mystery to us, and is likely to remain so. We may comfort ourselves, if comfort it be, with the reflection that we are as much of a puzzle to him as he can be to us.

A few things are clear. The Dreyfus revision was not, and was never meant to be, a judicial trial, conducted for the purpose of reaching the truth as to the formal issue presented by the indictment. It was a trial of strength between the two great parties into which Frenchmen, no matter what their minor shades of opinion, are and probably always will be divided: namely, the Government and the Opposition. In a sense, this conflict exists, of course, in all countries in which there is any active thought upon the question of government. The very life of the parliamentary state consists in a continued action and reaction of the forces at the moment responsible for administration and those which are waiting their turn to assume this responsibility, with all its burdens and its inevitable defeat. The difference between the issue in France and in other countries is that elsewhere the burning question is always upon this or that individual act of policy or of method; in France it is always upon the very form of government itself. The result is, that any given ministry finds itself responsible, not merely for the maintenance of law and the carrying out of some defined policy, but also for the very existence of the Constitution itself. A false step on the part of a ministry not only involves the minor evil of a change in administration, but also furnishes to the ever-ready enemies of the existing form of government an argument the more for its destruction. The republic in America is on trial only as all human institutions may be said to be on trial; the republic in France is on trial daily and hourly in the minds of multitudes of its own citizens.

The Government went into the Rennes court-martial under these conditions. It knew that it was itself on trial in a very critical meaning of the term. It is worthy of all praise for having had the courage to set in motion the machinery of revision, and to bring the unhappy Dreyfus once more to the judgment of his own kind, and, moreover, this time in the full light of publicity. Having done this, it could do no more. The trial itself was in the hands of soldiers, not of lawyers. It was public, but it was not under the rules of public law. The story of it, published day by day in stenographic completeness, is familiar to every reader. The like of it has not been heard in recent times. There is no reason to doubt the essential honesty of the judges. They believed themselves to be serving a double purpose—a political and a judicial one—and they were in a terrible stress between the two. That is the *crux* of the whole situation. The rest of the world, notably the English-speaking world, persisted in demanding a judicial inquiry, and flew into a moral fury as it became evident that not a judicial inquiry merely, but also a political game, was going on at Rennes, in which the prisoner at the bar was only an unhappy pawn, thrust about hither and thither as the higher interests at stake required.

Our virtue blinded us also to a fine distinction. We fancied, as we came to see more clearly into the obvious iniquities at Rennes, that the issue was clear between our kind of justice on the one hand and politics on the other. A more careful reading of the serious arguments on both sides shows us, however, that the two ideas were more or less mingled in both—more on the side of the *antis*, but a good deal also on the side of the defence. We need take no account of the nauseating flood of wanton exaggeration and abuse let loose upon the reading public in the Paris press. Enough evidence can be found in the serious organs of honest opinion—as, for example, the *Gaulois* newspaper—to confirm this impression. On the morning after the verdict the *Gaulois*, in a congratulatory article, dwelt especially upon this point, that the trial had two objects—justice *and* the public interest. The verdict had secured both objects, and now it was the duty of every one to accept it and unite in the great work of reconciliation and redemption. Doubtless that is a perfectly fair expression of the serious French view of the rights of an individual as compared with the larger interests of public life. It is a view we cannot approve, but we must admit that grave and conscientious men may hold it, and it goes far to explain the judgment of Rennes.

The same point of view crops out also frequently in the defence—naturally enough, of course, in the repelling of charges in which the political element was uppermost, but also abstractly without reference to such provocation. Labori's silence at the close, on the plausible ground that he might have made too clear the conflict of justice and politics, and the tone of Demanges's plea, which was throughout conciliatory, are indications of the kind I mean. The final flourish of the plea, in which, sincerely, we must believe, Demanges demanded acquittal, not on the ground that his client was proved innocent by the evidence, but because his fate was in the hands of *soldiers*, betrays, even in the legal mind, the same confusion of ideas.

If any further proof of the singular lack of clearness in French conceptions of justice were needed, it is found in the verdict of the 9th of September. Away up among the snow-peaks of the Bernese Oberland we heard, on that Saturday evening, only the words, "Dreyfus condemned." That was intelligible, and all the told-you-so's had their brief moment of congratulation. Then came, a few hours later, the rest of it—ten years' imprisonment in France, mitigating circumstances, disagreement of two judges—and therewith the whole inconceivable muddle of ideas. Treason mitigated by circumstances!—a mild punishment which might be treated as already absolved by the years on Devil's Island—probability of executive pardon—what a singular hodge-podge of justice and politics! The man was guilty of a crime for which there can be no palliation, and yet, for reasons which could only be political, the Government was to shoulder the responsibility of a pardon!

The verdict of Rennes was in perfect agreement with the inception and progress of the whole revisionist movement. It was not, in its intention, a triumph of politics over justice; it was an attempt at a compromise between the two, and its fate has been that of most compromises. It really satisfied no one, yet all sides began at once to try and get what comfort they could out of it. The anti-revolutionist press burst out into self-congratulation: France had redeemed herself; the infamous machinations of the "Syndicate" and of the "Triplice" had fallen harmless; the "enemies of France"—enemies only because they were afraid of her—including, of course, the United States, had failed in their furious campaign against her honor! On the other hand, the revisionist papers, headed by the *Figaro*, began to enumerate their causes for congratulation: the disagreement of the court, showing that there were men, even in the army, who could not be dragooned into compliance with wrong; the recommendation to mercy; the desperate refusal of the judges to hear the depositions of foreign officers; the renewed declaration of the German Government that its officials had never had any dealings whatsoever with the prisoner. The interval has shown that the defence had the best of it in this post-bellum reckoning. The universal judgment of Christendom supported it in its estimate, and the Government has confirmed it by its resolution to pardon the condemned man.

The Government of France, then, at the beginning and at the close of the Rennes court-martial, has on the whole shown itself as free from mere political motives as could have been expected. It has not taken sides, but it has seen the thing through, and it still lives. The demonstration is complete that the Dreyfus scandal has been the work, not of the French people, but of a combination between a corrupt army ring and certain desperate political factions who seized upon this, as they are ready to seize upon any other pretext, to make capital for themselves. It is they who hold up before the people the bugbear of foreign aggression, and Jewish plots, and republican corruption in office, and nobody knows what other mare's-nests, to keep alive that Chauvinist instinct which is, after all, the bane of French life in the present as it has been in the past.

E. E.

THE LAST DAYS OF TALLIEN.

PARIS, September 19, 1899.

When Napoleon returned from Egypt, he was on the point of divorcing Josephine. During his absence she had been living among very dissolute women. Mme. Tallien was one of them, and Napoleon, when he reconciled himself with Josephine, insisted upon a rupture between his wife and the mistress of Barras and of Ouvrard. After the *coup d'état* of the 18th Brumaire, Mme. Tallien was completely ostracized; she received no invitation to the court of the First Consul. It is probable, however, that Josephine sometimes received Mme. Tallien secretly at the Malmaison. Bonaparte never changed his orders. We see a proof of it in a letter which he wrote to his wife from Berlin in 1801:

"My friend, I have received your letter. . . . I forbid you to see Mme. Tallien under any pretext. I will admit no excuse. If you wish to preserve my esteem and to

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please me, you will never transgress the present order. People say that she comes to your apartments nightly; forbid your porters to let her in. A miserable man has married her. . . . She was an amiable woman; she has become a horrible and infamous woman."

Madame Tallien had a child while her husband was on his way to Egypt; it died soon after its birth. On the 31st of January, 1801, when Tallien was still in Egypt, she had another child, a girl, who was registered under the name of Cabarrus, not of Tallien, and was probably the child of Ouvrard, the contractor. Tallien came back to France in the spring of 1801, having left Egypt by order of Gen. Menou. The ship which brought him back to France was seized by the English, and Tallien was a prisoner till peace was signed. Friends advised him that his wife had had two children during his absence. After some hesitation, he instituted a suit for divorce, and during the suit Madame Tallien had another child.

The divorce could offer no difficulty, and was pronounced on the 2d of April, 1802. Tallien disappears completely from that time. He had not made a fortune in Egypt, as he had hoped. Napoleon disliked and despised him. Through the influence of Fouché and Talleyrand, he obtained, in 1804, a consulship at Alicante. The wife of Junot, the Duchess d'Abrantès, met him at Madrid, at the table of Gen. Beurnonville, French Ambassador to Spain, and writes in her memoirs:

"I had by me a man with a hideous and sinister face, who never said a word. This man was tall, brown, of a morose and bilious aspect, with dark eyes which at first gave you the impression that he was one-eyed. But you soon saw that he had what is called a dragon in one eye. He was sullen, spoke little, and, to tell the truth, he was little spoken to. . . . The unfortunate! what an existence he was leading then."

The war of 1808 put an end to his functions. He was obliged to leave Spain. We see in the memoirs of Barère that Barère met him accidentally in 1812 in the cabinet of the Duke of Rovigo, who was then Minister of Police. In 1815 he went to see Carnot, who did not or would not recognize him. The same year, he gave his vote for the "Acte Additionel" of the Imperial Constitution at the *mairie* of his arrondissement, and thought it necessary to qualify his vote.

"Phrases becoming useless when the dangers of the country are imminent, when the honor and the independence of the nation demand the sacrifice of all individual opinions; wishing above all to be and to remain a Frenchman; hoping for the necessary ameliorations from time, from the experience and the patriotism of the two Chambers, I say Yes."

In 1814 he had received a pension of 6,000 francs from the benevolence of Louis XVIII., and he had to explain his vote upon the King's return after Waterloo. He wrote letters to the King and to Decazes, Minister of Police. These letters are kept in the national archives, and have been published by M. Ch. Nauroy. Tallien implored the mercy of the King, who perhaps had some debt of gratitude contracted during the Revolutionary period to pay him. He was excepted from the law of proscription which condemned to exile all the regicides.

He had so far received a small pension as former Consul, but this pension was suppressed in 1816; he was obliged to leave an apartment which he occupied in the Rue Chabanes, and to live in a small house in the Allée des Veuves. It has often been said, and M. Turquan repeats, that he accepted there the hospitality of his wife, who owned a house called "La Chaumière" in the Allée. M. Lenôtre, who has devoted himself to a minute study of the Revolutionary period and of the men of the Revolution, says that this is an error.

"He did not, whatever may have been said, live in the 'Chaumière'; this property, having appreciated in value, had been cut up into lots. He hired, from a market-gardener, a small house with only two windows in front, much nearer the *Rond Point* of the Champs-Élysées. He lived there alone with a woman servant, without reading or writing. . . . He was often encountered under the elms of the Avenue, walking with difficulty, for he was gouty, with a cane. When he went towards the Seine, he stopped there, contemplating the former 'Chaumière,' transformed into a public house, which, from an old tree, a survivor of the garden of Thérèse, took the name 'À l'Acacia.'" The place was frequented only by wagoners and laundrymen, and nobody knew who this sad pedestrian was, nor what he was looking at. . . . Before the entrance, now full of people drinking, he had seen the horses of the red coach which all Paris knew. He saw again by his side Thérèse, 'dressed in a cloud,' smiling, receiving mute homage."

Thérèse was now a Princess. After her second divorce, she quitted the Chaumière and lived in the Rue-de Babylon, in a house the gift of Barras. Reichardt, in his curious book, 'A Winter in Paris under the Consulate,' gives us an enthusiastic description of Thérèse in this new period of her existence and of her house. All the decorations were in that new style which is now called the Empire:

"The magnificent ebony bed in the bedroom is in a severer style than that of Mme. Récamier. Like the latter, it is decorated with pretty gilt bronzes. But the canopy of the bed is higher; it has the form of a round tent, and is supported by the beak of a gilt pelican—a form imported from Egypt. The curtains are of white and crimson satin, with gilt borders, hanging in large folds to the floor. The whole room is decorated with fine bas-reliefs."

The good Reichardt describes even the head-dress of Mme. Cabarrus, her gown, her laces; he seems to have completely fallen under her charm. So did the Count Joseph de Caraman, who was married to her on the 15th Thermidor, year xiii. of the Republic, July 18, 1805. He was thirty-three years old, the son of a former General of the French armies; Thérèse was thirty-two years old at the time. They left for Italy, to settle in Tuscany the affairs of the succession of the Prince de Chimay, as the Count de Caraman was his heir. They were received at the court of the Queen of Etruria, where Mme. de Caraman was much admired.

The principality of Chimay, a place in Hainaut, belonged successively to the houses of Croy, of Arenberg, of Hennin. A Count Riquet de Caraman married the only daughter of Prince Hennin d'Alsace, and it was thus that the principality of Chimay fell to the house of Chimay. Madame de Caraman had had only a civil marriage, and, at the beginning of the Restoration, she wished to have a religious marriage. It was necessary, however, that the *acte de décès* of her first husband, Fontenay, should be produced. Fontenay died very conveniently for her; the religious ceremony was performed, and her position in the world became better assured. For a long time Count de Caraman did not assume his title of Prince de Chimay, though he was owner of the principality of Chimay. The Countess signed her letters Caraman-Chimay. She consulted friends, many of whom advised her to remain simply Madame de Caraman. Another, who was more experienced, told her to have cards engraved with "Prince and Princess de Chimay" and leave them at the doors of her acquaintances. "People will talk about it for a week; the week after, you will be Prince and Princess de Chimay." When Tallien heard of this, he said: "She can do what she likes; she will always in history remain Madame Tallien."

They met each other, perforce, when their daughter Thermidor was married to Félix de Narbonne-Pelet. We read in a letter of M. Boucher de Perthes, who was at the wedding:

"The wedding took place nearly with closed doors. It was necessary that Tallien should be there, as the father. So he was face to face with his ex-wife. After the ceremony, Mme. de Chimay offered to take him back to his house in the Allée des Veuves. He accepted, and took a seat by her in her carriage. On arriving before the Hôtel de Caraman, Mme. de Chimay, who did not wish to go as far as the Champs-Élysées, stopped her berlin and was about to alight from it when the door was opened. M. de Chimay, who was just coming home, advanced his hand towards his wife; he met Tallien's hand. The situation was awkward. Thinking that Tallien wished to accompany his daughter to the end, he begged him to enter. Tallien, though he was himself moved, did not wish to answer politeness with refusal, and accepted. A collation was served; you may judge if it was a gay one, and if the eyes of the party often left their plates. The Princess was the least embarrassed, and did the honors nobly, for she has not only the beauty, but the air, the voice, and the manners of a queen."

The Princess de Chimay lived in affluence and luxury till the 15th of January, 1835. As for Tallien, after the marriage of his daughter, he found himself alone again in his little house in the Allée des Veuves. He led a very solitary life. He formed a little library, and collected documents on the Revolution. Pasquier tells us that he met him once in 1820, on the quays of the Seine, discussing with a *bouquiniste* the price of a set of the *Ami des Citoyens*. It was his own paper, edited during the Revolution. Pasquier told him that he had long looked for a set. "Allow me to offer you the last in existence," said Tallien. Pasquier says that he did not dare to offer him money on the spot. He spoke of Tallien the same evening to Louis XVIII.; the King said to him: "Pasquier, go to Tallien and beg him to accept a pension of a hundred louis from my privy purse." Tallien accepted it; he was reduced to poverty. He did not live long after meeting with Pasquier, for he died November 16, 1820, without any other assistance than that of his woman servant. Nobody noticed his disappearance. The *Journal des Débats* announced his death in a few lines: "The immense service which he rendered to his country on the ninth Thermidor will procure pardon for a vote which he expiated by six years of regret. He would have been reduced to the most absolute distress without the help of an august benefactor."

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Correspondence.

ROOSEVELT'S VERIEST NONSENSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his recent campaign speech in Akron, O., Gov. Roosevelt said:

"The talk about the Filipinos having practically achieved their independence is, of course, the veriest nonsense. Aguinaldo, who has turned against us, owed his return to the islands to us. It was our troops, and not the Filipinos, who conquered the Spaniards."

That the Filipino insurgents had a status as belligerents, and that their presence and acts contributed materially to the surrender of Manila and the Spanish army, is evident from a number of admissions made by both the American and the Spanish Peace Commissioners, and published in the official report of their proceedings. The Spanish Commissioners spoke as follows:

"The *status quo* was altered, and continues being altered with daily increasing gravity to the prejudice of Spain, by the Tagalo rebels, who formed during the campaign and still form an auxiliary force to the regular American troops," etc. (Mem. annexed to Protocol I.)

"In spite of a blockade by sea and the siege by land, the former by the American fleet and the latter by forces commanded by a native encouraged and assisted by the American Admiral," etc. (Mem. annexed to Protocol XII.)

"Spanish prisoners held in the possession of the American forces and their auxiliaries, the insurgents of Cebu and the Philippines" (Mem. annexed to Protocol XVI.)

The American Commissioners were even more frank and generous in their recognition of the insurgents. In the memorandum attached to Protocol XIII. they say:

"The city [Manila] was closely besieged on the land side by the insurgents. It was in extremity for provisions, and the insurgents controlled the water supply. The Spanish forces had been unable to raise the siege, and therefore could not escape from the city on the land side. The city was blockaded by the American fleet; the fleet of Spain had been destroyed, and there was no escape for her troops by water."

In their memorandum annexed to Protocol XV. they speak thus:

"The Spanish Commissioners have themselves, in an earlier stage of these negotiations, spoken of the Filipinos as our allies. This is not a relation which the Government of the United States intended to establish; but it must at least be admitted that the insurgent chiefs returned and resumed their activity with the consent of our military and naval commanders, who permitted them to arm with weapons which we had captured from the Spaniards, and *assured them of fair treatment and justice.*"

Furthermore, on September 5, 1898, when Spain, not yet realizing that she would have to "cede" the Philippines, asked our Government for the release of the Spanish soldiers captured in Manila in order that they might be employed in putting down the rebellion, the Department of State refused the request, "in view of the fact that, for some time before the surrender of Manila, the Spanish forces in that city were besieged by the insurgents by land while the port was blockaded by the forces of the United States by sea." Even the treaty of peace (art. vi.) obligates the United States "to undertake the release of all Spanish prisoners in the hands of the insurgents in Cuba and the Philippines"—thus putting both rebel armies on the same footing.

Surely Gov. Roosevelt cannot deny that the Filipinos contributed to the conquest of the Spaniards. Indeed, it cannot be doubted that (after Dewey had annihilated the Spanish fleet) the Filipino army was entirely competent to take Manila and liberate their native land—what the Cubans could not have done in Cuba. The American Commissioners say (Mem. to Protocol XIII.): "The world knows that the attack [on Manila] was only delayed to protect the city and its Spanish inhabitants from the dreaded vengeance of the insurgents." President McKinley (as reported by Ambassador Cambon on July 31) said the same: "If the American forces retain up to now their respective positions, it is in obedience to a duty imposed upon me in favor of residents and foreigners by the progress of the Tagalo insurrection." In other words, we kept the Filipinos back, and they held back because they trusted us.

Finally, in one of the cheap American magazines of the current year (I forget which one) there appeared an article by Eduard André, who was Belgian Consul at Manila during the siege, and who conducted the negotiations for surrender between the Spaniards and the American. The article was worth preserving as an historical document. A reading of it makes it evident that the Filipino army was quite a factor in the siege and surrender of Manila.

God knows that no deeper sorrow has come upon our people since our own civil war than this, that we are arrayed in arms against a people whom "we assured of fair treatment and justice," and who ask and fight for the right of self-government. Our natural sympathy is with all rebels, for we were rebels—with Boers, Irish, Poles, Filipinos. The men who substituted the word "cede" for the word "relinquish" in that clause of the peace treaty which relates to the Philippines, will get a sharp lesson as soon as the plain American people can get at the ballot-box.

DAVID JESSUP DOHERTY, M.D.

CHICAGO, September 28, 1899.

CHARLESTON IN 1757.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Notices of Charleston in colonial days are so few in number and meagre in matter that I send you an account written in 1757. The writer was a companion of Washington in the frontier war with the French, and had gone with a Virginia regiment into Carolina. He served well, but became politically ambitious and went to England, where he was agent for the Ohio Company, nearly succeeding in destroying its claims by uniting with another company having more influential backing. His act was disavowed by the Ohio Company, and he became an applicant for the governorship of Florida. Later he was a Loyalist, and was in Paris as a paid spy and agent of the British Government.

I add a letter copied many years ago from a manuscript in the Lee collection, and a third paper, the source of which I do not recall, unless it was in the Ford collection. The three papers are complementary to one another. WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

BOSTON, September 5, 1899.

GEORGE MERCER TO WASHINGTON.

Dear Colonel

I wrote you Viâ Philadelphia a few Days after my Arrival, but as We have certain Advice of that Vessel's calling in at Cape François, I set down to write you the same as near as I can guess, only adding the News that We have had in the Interim

No Doubt you'l expect a particular and authentic Account of this Place and its Inhabitants. I shall endeavor to satisfy you in both as far as my Knowledge of Them & Capacity will admit, & to begin I never, from Accounts, was so much disappointed in my Expectations of both. The Town in the first Place is little larger than Wms Burg no Buildings in it to compare with our Public ones there, far inferior to Philadelphia N York, Boston or even New Port itself. The Town is built on a Point of Land between two Rivers. On the Bay there are some very good Houses, & it is from thence it shows to the greatest Advantage. The rest of the Town is indifferently improved, many very bad low clapboard Houses upon their Principal streets which are in general narrow & confined. The Inhabitants, who you remember were esteemed the polite & genteelest People on the Continent, are egregiously misrepresented. I believe tho they will mend for I find a considerable Alteration since I first came here, but they never will come up to the Character given Them. What adds to make this Place at present disagreeable is that most of the Gent of Note are out at their Indigo Plantations, so that we have nothing left but a Set of trading Ones, who esteem you dfor Nothing but your Money, & who don't very genteely treat you for that. Youl be surprized I have not yet mentioned the fair Ones. I wish I coud call Them so, I assure you they are very far inferior to the Beauties of our own Country, & as much on the Reserve as in any Place I ever was, occasioned by the Multiplicity of Scandal which prevails here; for the chief of your Entertainment even in the best Houses & at the first Introduction is upon that agreeable Subject, then you hear the Termagant the Inconstant, the Prude & Coquette the fine Gent & the fine Lady laid off in their most beautiful Colors, with their Observations if they had so behaved (which you are sure of having the Pleasure to hear at the next House you go to) what they shoud think of Themselves—in short two Families here are sufficient to inform you of the Character of every one in the Place. A great Imperfection here too, is the bad Shape of the Ladies. Many of Them are crooked & have a very bad Air. . . . I am afraid I have tired your Patience & doubt not but you are as much disappointed at reading This, as I was at having an Opportunity of writing it to you.

The many Favors my dear Colonel that I have received at your Hands woud make Me blush at begging an Addition to Them, did I not know your Goodness in excusing such Freedoms. I believe you are very sensible of the Governors great Inclination to deprive Me of any Thing that he genteely coud, and I am certain that he woud be glad of an Opportunity of putting any One over my Head, but I hope Sr you will be kind enough to see Me Justice done in that Respect. You are the only Friend I have to apply to at this Distance, & in whose Power it is to assist Me. I rely solely upon your Goodness in Case of a Vacancy, as it is now my Right, thro your Friendship, to see Me prefered in Turn.

We have Advice here and it seems to be well attested that the Austrian Army met with a total Defeat. They had upwards of 7000 taken Prisoners about 9000 killed in the Field above 200 Pieces of Cannon and all their Field Equipage fell into the Hands of the Prussians, who immediately entered Prague Sword in Hand, where they made Prisoners & killed the greatest Part of the Austrian Army who had taken Refuge there. You will I hope hear it confirmed e'er you see this. No one doubts it here.

I take the Liberty to mention the Inconvenience which I see must necessarily arise if the Troops are not properly clothed again next Year. They make a very good Appearance here, and are much esteemed for their orderly Behavior. They are extreamly well satisfied at

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their present Situation, besides their usual Allowance in Virg[a] of 1 lb of Meat & Bread per Day, they get ½ pt. of Rum 1 pt. of Rice, & pt. Pease Pepper Salt & Vinegar beside Greens of some Kind every Day.

We have met with a Set of very genteel pretty Officers here of the Royals. Harmony & Unanimity prevail greatly among Us, and there is no Demand made for Necessaries for their own Troops in which ours are not joined. We do Duty of all Kinds with Them, & our Men are exercised in Battalion w[th] theirs.

As I know the Major Tulliken is an Acquaintance of yours I need not say any Thing in his Praise, as every one who knows him, must immediately discover the polite well bred Gent, as well as the good & diligent officer in Him. He is much esteemed here by Civil & Military.

Col[o] Bouquet I shoud have done Injustice to, to have omitted particularly in my Letter. He is I believe well acquainted with his Duty a good natured sensible Man, very obliging to all under his Command, and the only one of the Foreigners I am told on whom his Lordship much depends. In short we are looked upon in quite another Light by all the officers than we were by Gen[l] Braddock or M[r] Orme, and do our Duty equally without any Partiality or particular Notice taken of one more than the other. I conceive great Hopes of our living here vastly happy so soon as the chief Families of this Place resume their Post in Town, their Absence now I assure you makes the Town very unsociable. Nothing but the good Harmony that subsists among ourselves woud make it tolerable.

It is a very odd Method of judging but however tis the Place upon which most of the World goes, and therefore to find ourselves judged for the Errors or Imperfections of others is not very unaccountable, but we have been told here by the officers that nothing ever gave them such Surprize as our Appearance at entering Hampton, for expecting to see a Parcel of ragged disorderly Fellows headed by Officers of their own Stamp (like the rest of the Provincials they had seen) behold they saw men properly disposed who made a good, & Soldier like Appearance and performed in every Particular as well as coud be expected from any Troops with officers whom they found to be Gent; to see a Sash & Gorget with a genteel Uniform, a Sword properly hung, a Hat cocked, Persons capable of holding Conversation where only common Sense was requisite to continue the Discourse, and a White Shirt, with any other than a black Leather Stock, were Matters of great Surprize and Admiration & which engaged Them all to give Us a polite Invitation to spend the Evening, & after to agree to keep us Company which they had determined before not to do, agreeable to what they had practised with the other Provincial Troops. We have lost that common Appellation of Provincials, & are known here by the Style & Title of the Detachment of the Virg[a] Regiment.

They have passed a Vote here for granting a Sum for raising 700 Men subject to the Order & Disposal of Lord Loudown, have put them on the same Establishment with our Troops, and have given your old Acquaintance Howarth the Command of Them as Lieu[t] Col[o] & Commandant of the S[o] Carolina Provincials. I fear they will be a long Time raising, I dare venture to engage not before the Act expires which is only for 12 Months two of which are now lapsed and not one Man recruited, or a Commission given out—strange Delay.

I cant tell what to expect on this Quarter this Summer whether Peace, or War—one Day they are secure, the next alarmed by hearing of a large Embarkation of Troops for Cape François. We have had an account of 2 or 3 several Squadrons with Troops on Board touching there, since We have been at this Place. Tis known some of Them have gone to the Mississippi, they are still under Apprehensions but I think without a Cause.

Our latest News is of so long a Date that I imagine it coud be none to you before this will come to Hand. The Defeat of the Austrians is confirmed.

In Case of Col[o] Stephen's Removal from this Command wh I believe he is tired of, I hope it will be agreeable to you that I shoud succeed him. Youl scarce believe that the Colonel never appears here but in full dressed laced Suits—so great a Change has Carolina produced.

I hope Dear Colonel you'l favor Me with a Letter now & then, I assure you nothing woud give Me greater Pleasure than to hear frequently from you. None of our Detachment has ever yet received a Line or heard from Virginia.

If I remember well, I informed you before that M[r] Stretch had promised to be particularly careful of & forward any Letters to or from Me. Philadelphia too woud be a ready Conveyance for Letters from your Quarter.

Virginia has gained great Credit by sending Troops here, tis more than any of the other Colonies or Provinces have done; & I assure you our Men behave extreamly well.

Three or four of our Serjeants will get Commissions in the Charles Town Regiment.

I fear I have tired your Patience by this, therefore beg Leave to conclude & assure you that with great Esteem and Respect I subscribe myself

D[r] Colonel
Your most obliged Friend
&
obedient humble Servant
G[o] Mercer

Charles Town
August 17th 1757

TO THE EARL OF HILLSBOROUGH.

My Lord,

I take the Liberty to inform your Lordship, that I have been deprived of the Honour of waiting on you for your Commands, by a violent Cold, which has confined me twelve Days to my House.

As the Government of West Florida is still vacant, I hope your Lordship will not think it impertinent in me to renew my Petition for that Employment. I have not many Friends whom I can ask to second my Application; and as your Lordship has been so partial to my Sufferings, to honour me with your Protection on a former Occasion, their Solicitations would intrude on your Lordship's more necessary Engagements.

I beg your Lordship will give me Leave again to inform you that I served my King in the most disagreeable and dangerous War, in America nine Years, was strongly and particularly recommended by the Legislature & Governor and Council of Virginia to his Majesty, in Consequence of my Services and Recommendations, was appointed Chief Distributor of Stamps in Virginia, an Appointment which in itself cost me more than £1000, and on my Return here was by an Address of the House of Commons generally recommended to his Majesty for some Employment, to which he was most graciously pleased to say he would attend, and direct such as came within the Intention of it, to be provided for; I have been permitted by a Memorial to state these Facts to his Majesty long since, and have, my Lord, only now to add that I have waited here almost seven Years, in Expectation of some Reward for my Services or Expences. Thus, Sir, am I circumstanced, and I have presumed to represent my Situation to your Lordship, convinced, from your known Justice and Benevolence, if you think my Pretensions entitle me to ask so much, that you will lay Them before my Royal Master, and I have the Vanity to hope they will procure me all I ask or wish.

I beg your Lordship will pardon me for troubling you so often. I shall make it my Study on every Occasion to approve myself

His Majesty's most faithful & loyal Subject,
and My Lord, Your Lordships most obedient
most devoted and most humble Servant,
G[eo] Mercer.

Holles Street,
Decr. the 16th 1767.

TO HIS BROTHER.

PARIS, 10 March, [1779]

Hearing that your dear Brother is still at Nantes, I determine to write to my dear Brother *again*, as I am informed the Fleet will sail immediately; and that no later Opportunity can offer from hence to overtake it. I do not recollect how many Letters from me Mr. Dick is charged with; but I beg when you see Them, and are convinced that I have ever endeavoured to bind to my Bosom by the most endearing Ties my Brothers and Sisters, that you will write me one single Letter in Return; in whatever Style you please, and think I deserve. I ask no greater Boon from you: It can do you no very great Violence I think, to write, in your own Style and Manner, your real Sentiments and Opinion of me, and my Actions—and I conjure you to say Nothing but the Truth. If I have sinned against you, I wish sincerely to know it. If I find myself in the wrong, I shall make every Acknowledgment and Reparation in my Power—but I shall never quarrel with any Man for giving it under his Hand that he is my Enemy; On the Contrary I shall commend him for his Candour; I shall take Care after, that he never deceives me.

I expect and hope to quit this Place soon, not only because it is to me an extremely disagreeable one, but because my Health requires it. I have been almost blind for a Fortnight, and have at this Moment one of my Eyes bound up and cataplasmed: A violent Inflamation fixed in Them, and I have greatly suffered from it; but the Pain is now ceased, and one of Them has resumed its usual Colour and Size. The Faculty say the Wound in my Arm healed too soon; and has occasioned the Humour in my Eyes. They have ordered me to Aix la Chapelle, whither I shall proceed as soon as I am in travelling Order, and I shall remain there till autumn at least, as well for the Benefit of the Waters, as to *perfect* myself in the German Language, which I have made a considerable Progress in already, and being Master of the French, the other will be a Change & Relief; Beside it will be particularly useful to me, should I determine to go into Trade, whenever a Peace is made with America.

If you address me as 6 contra M Panchaud will always forward my Letters to me whereever I am. If Heaven would send a Peace to America and England, I shall immediately return to this Quarter, that I may be in the Way of News, ready to take such Ships as may be necessary. As you may suppose I am thoroughly acquainted with your Writing, it will be unnecessary for you to sign your Name to any Letter, you may chuse to favour me with.

Mr. Adams, one of the last Commissioners here, having been superseded by the sole appointment of Dr. F[rankli]n as Minister Plenipotentiary, has left Paris, to return to America —to complain, I am told, grievously—but I know not what about. It was not well to give Power to one; the Triumvirate, it is said, agreed but illy together, and but little better with the Subjects of America who fell into their Hands here. To the great Prejudice and Scandal of the Appointment and Name of Ambassadors they all quarreled with each other, and have made Parties against each other—but not in their own Favour, or to their own Advantage; for I never heard of one of Them that was spoken well of. Dr. F—— is well spoken of and received among the *French*, as a *Philosopher*. He is very old, and it is astonishing the C[ongres]s should not have appointed a Secretary to the Ambassy here, for should the Dr. die—it would be six Months at least before another could arrive here to fill his Place.

Every one must see the Confusion that would occasion should it happen at this Juncture. Do you imagine there is a Man in Virginia who would believe, were he ever to have Admission to the Record of Con[gres]s that—

[Rest of MS. wanting.]

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Notes.

Francis P. Harper's fall announcements include number three of the "American Explorers" series, 'On the Trail of a Spanish Pioneer,' being the diary of Francisco Garces, missionary priest, in his travels through Sonora, Arizona, and California, 1775-76, now first translated and carefully edited, with plates and maps, by Dr. Elliott Coues; 'Essays in Librarianship and Bibliography,' by Dr. Richard Garnett; Cennino Cennini's 'Art of the Old Masters,' newly translated by Christiana J. Herringham; a new edition of Cripps's 'Old English Plate,' revised and enlarged; 'Good Citizenship,' twenty-one essays edited by the Rev. J. E. Hand and Canon Gore; 'Naval Yarns of Sea-Fights, Wrecks, Etc.,' collected and edited by W. H. Long; and 'A Cockney in Arcadia,' by Harry A. Spurr.

Further announcements by Macmillan Co. are 'Greek Terracotta Statuettes,' by A. G. Murray of the British Museum; 'Romances of Roguery,' by Frank Wadleigh Chandler; 'More Pot-Pourri from a Surrey Garden,' by Mrs. C. W. Earle, author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden,' and a series of Manuals of English Composition, by Prof. Edwin Herbert Lewis of the University of Chicago.

'Pictures and Poems by Dante Gabriel Rossetti,' compiled with an introduction by Fitz Roy Carrington, and 'The Worldly Wisdom of Chesterfield,' gathered by W. L. Sheppard, are to be issued by R. H. Russell.

Richard G. Badger & Co., Boston, promise shortly 'From Yauco to Las Marias,' a story of the campaign in western Porto Rico by the Independent Regular Brigade under Brig.-Gen. Schwan, told by Private Karl Stephen Herrmann; 'The Sicilian Idylls of Theocritus,' translated into English lyric measure by Marion Mills Miller; 'Julia Marlowe,' by John D. Barry, volume one in the "Sock and Buskin Biographies"; 'French Portraits,' appreciations of latter-day French writers by Vance Thompson; 'Old Madame, and Other Tragedies,' by Harriet Prescott Spofford; 'The House of the Sorcerer,' a story of negro life, by Haldane McFall, stepson of Mrs. Sarah Grand, author of the 'Heavenly Twins'; 'Pepys's Ghost,' by Edwin Emerson, jr.; 'Camp Arcady,' by Floy Campbell; 'Vassar Stories,' the *Century's* prize story, by Miss Grace Margaret Gallaher; 'The Price of Blood,' an extravaganza, written and illustrated by Howard Pyle; 'The Fairy Spinning-Wheel,' from the French of Catulle Mendès; 'The Sirens Three,' by Walter Crane; and 'Illustrated Ditties of the Olden Time,' a reprint.

A revised edition of Dr. Richard G. Moulton's 'Literary Study of the Bible' is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Another volume will shortly be published by the Public Record Office, London, of the Calendars of State Papers, Colonial Series. Its contents will cover the period 1685 to 1688, while considerable progress has been made in calendaring the papers of the years 1689-'90-'91, and '92 for another volume which will probably appear at the end of 1900 or early in 1901. The documents already dealt with afford ample materials for a history of the Revolution of 1688, as regards its effects upon the colonies. The work is in the thoroughly competent hands of the Hon. J. W. Fortescue, a younger son of Earl Fortescue, fast building up a solid reputation as an historian. The first two volumes of Mr. Fortescue's 'History of the British Army' will appear in the course of November or December. They bring the story down to 1763. The work will be completed, down to 1870, in two subsequent volumes. With the materials at his command, Mr. Fortescue could have easily filled ten volumes instead of the two.

A recent number of the *Zeitschrift* of the German Oriental Society (Vol. 53, Heft 2) contains the important announcement that Messrs. Williams & Norgate propose to publish an exhaustive and scientifically arranged index to the names in the 'Mahabharata,' with short explanations, compiled by S. Sörensen, Ph.D., at the price of seven shillings and sixpence for each of the twelve parts, the whole to fill about 1,100 quarto pages; provided that a sufficient number of subscribers are secured. Prof. Geldner publishes this appeal, and warmly approves of it.

Very well worth reprinting, and attractively reprinted by G. P. Putnam's Sons, is Abraham Hayward's sometime famous *Quarterly Review* essay on 'The Art of Dining.' No one will dine by any rules here given, so far as mere receipts for cooking are concerned, and it may be doubted if Mr. Hayward was an epicure. In fact, he declared himself comparatively indifferent to eating, and said that he would not eat half the dishes mentioned in his article if he were paid for it. But his essay is none the less delightful on that account, and its elaborate Johnsonian periods give dignity to an occupation which, on the whole, very well deserves it. Diners and dinners are treated *con amore*, and the pleasures of refined festivity are enlarged upon with judicious and appreciative comment.

'Adam Smith' is the contribution of Mr. Hector C. Macpherson to the "Famous Scots" series published by the Scribners. As a biography it is inadequate, whatever value it has being due to extracts from Mr. Rae's excellent book. As an attempt to connect Adam Smith's principles with a theory of evolution, it is more interesting, although not at all impressive.

'The Young Citizen,' by the Rev. C. F. Dole (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), has merit beyond most books of its class as emphasizing the distinctions between true patriotism and the chauvinism which is often passed off as the genuine article. The book is intended as a reader for the school and home, and aims to encourage "the warm ethical and patriotic feeling, which moves instinctively with the growing consciousness of the child, that right and wrong are involved in politics." The illustrations are in many cases poor and inappropriate.

From the Macmillan Co. we receive two small volumes entitled 'State Trials: Political and Social,' by H. L. Stephen. The editor states that, after making his selection, he became aware that Mr. Leslie Stephen, in his 'Hours in a Library,' had chosen for notice precisely the trials here reported. There is enough difference, however, in the character of the works to make their identity of subject immaterial. The editor of these volumes has confined his task to the selection of passages to be transcribed bodily from Howell's pages, to providing connecting links between them, and to supplying such notes as may enable the reader to understand the facts which resulted in the intervention of the State. The most important of the trials summarized are those of Sir Walter Raleigh, Charles I., the Regicides, Lord Russell, and the Earl of Warwick. There are as many more in which the names of the defendants are less noted, but which are not the less interesting for the light they throw on the jurisprudence of the past, as well as on its beliefs and prejudices.

When 'On Many Seas,' by Herbert Elliott Hamblen, made its appearance, it was such a complete, convincing, and conclusive narrative of personal experience that it was evident that the author could never again employ the same episodes so effectively. 'The Yarn of a Bucko Mate' (Scribners) confirms this forecast. In this story, as in others that he has written which relate to the sea, Mr. Hamblen is technically accurate in describing the handling of a ship under all emergencies; he is equally accurate in his descriptions of the former brutality of the mates of Western ocean ships to the men under their command. When he strays from these topics, and, in order to pad out his volume, tells of adventures (to-day) on the west coast of South America possible only in the palmy time of pirates or freebooters, then we must cease to take Mr. Hamblen seriously.

Madame Zenaïde A. Ragozin, who is already known by her books in the "Story of the Nations" series as an expert and trustworthy popularizer, has just issued a little primer of the beginnings of history ('A History of the World: Earliest Peoples.' New York: William Beverley Harrison). It can be heartily commended as an honest and successful attempt to make the cave-dwellers, the lake-dwellers, the mound-builders, and the historical civilization of the valley of the Euphrates, the Sumero-Accadians, Semites, etc., intelligible and interesting to children. The style is excellent for its purpose; the illustrations could hardly be better chosen or reproduced; the pronunciation of the proper names is indicated according to the method of the 'Century Cyclopædia of Names.' Other volumes are promised to carry the history down.

Mr. Clemens has just accused the Jews of a lack of organization. The latest book issued by the Jewish Publication Society of America ('The American Jewish Year-Book, 5660; September 5, 1899, to September 23, 1900,' edited by Cyrus Adler) tends to roll away that reproach, or, rather, to show its falsehood so far as the accusation could be truly a reproach. Without doubt this book will be extremely useful. It consists of a calendar marking Sabbaths, festivals, fasts, and Scripture portions, pp. 1-13; two short historical sketches—very sketchy, indeed—of the past year in this country and in Europe as it affected the Jews, pp. 14-33; a directory of national organizations, pp. 34-104, of local organizations, pp. 105-270; a bibliography of Jewish periodicals, past and present, published in the United States, pp. 271-282; statistics of population, pp. 283-285; and a chronological list of leading events of the past year. The accuracy of the directories which form the *raison d'être* of the book can be tested only by use. The historical sketches range from immigration statistics through Zionism and Dreyfus to Zangwill. On pp. 42-49 there is an extremely interesting account of the activities of the Baron de Hirsch Fund. Pages 99-104, by

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means of the two organizations, the Orthodox Congregational Union and the Union of Hebrew Congregations, illustrate the deep cleft in Judaism. It would be hard to find flatter opposition than between "We protest against the idea that we are merely a religious sect, and maintain that we are a nation, though temporarily without a national home" (p. 100), and "The Jews are not a nation, but a religious community" (p. 103). The book may thus be commended, not only to Jews in search of information as to their own congregations and societies, but also to all who wish to understand the diverging aims and varying attitudes of mind to be found among American Israelites. The Zionist movement is coming to be of sufficient general political importance to repay study. A *Juden-staat* in Palestine under German protection and Turkish suzerainty would raise curious problems.

The names attached to 'A Text-Book of General Physics,' by Charles S. Hastings and Frederick E. Beach (Ginn & Co.), are a sufficient guarantee that it has considerable merits. Prof. Hastings's favorite subject of optical instruments receives two chapters. An attentive perusal of the whole book has not greatly impressed us with its perspicuity. Many objections might be made to the chapters on the all-important matter of dynamics, which are quite inadequate to the needs of students.

'Psychology in the Schoolroom,' by T. F. G. Dexter and A. H. Garlic (Longmans, Green & Co.), is perhaps as good a book as could be expected in the present transitional stage both of the science and of the art to which it relates. It has a pedagogical formalism which seems to contemplate a very immature state of mind on the part of the intending teacher who is to study it.

Dr. Maurice de Fleury, author of 'Le Corps et l'Âme de l'Enfant' (Paris: A. Colin & Cie.), is one of those who look to imitation of the Anglo-Saxons as a curative agent for the malady of France. We are not called upon to express an opinion about that, though the French are not the only people among whom vanity mistakes itself for honor. The book contains a great deal of good sense so expressed as to make the reader think it ought to be commonplace; and in truth there is no great novelty in it.

The particular originality of M. Jean Schopfer's book, 'Le Voyage Idéal en Italie' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.), which has just appeared, is, that in giving an itinerary of six months' travel he does not follow a geographical order, which, in its brusque transitions from ancient to modern, pagan to Christian, produces, he believes, a confused and unpleasant impression. He traces instead the ideal journey that could be made by any amateur who wished to establish a chronological sequence in the great periods of art as they are manifested in the cities of Italy. "My sole condition," he says, "is that distance shall count for nothing." His starting-point is Pæstum. From the temple of Poseidon he travels for a ten days' visit to Naples and Pompeii; from there to Rome for three weeks, and then to Florence for two days, keeping always close to the study of the antique from its beginning to its decadence, and ignoring, for the time being, any later art. He then returns to Rome, but blind to pagan antiquity, and wholly under the influence of St. Paul and the Evangelists. He prepares himself by a study of these, and of 'Les Origines du Christianisme,' 'Archäologie der Altchristlichen Kunst,' and other works on early Christian times, to appreciate the Coliseum, the Catacombs, and the first Christian churches. The next city he visits is Ravenna, where there are eight churches of the fifth and sixth centuries. A journey across the Apennines then brings the ideal traveller, by way of Ancona and Foligno, to Assisi, "toward which Saint Francis prepares the way." Observing always the chronological order, Mr. Schopfer discusses briefly the artistic merit of all the important works of the Tuscan school from the thirteenth to the sixteenth century, to be studied during two months spent at Florence, Pisa, Arrezzo, Siena, and Lucca. Finally, leaving Tuscany, he journeys southwards by way of Siena, San Gimignano, and Orvieto, to Rome again for a prolonged sojourn. Having thus completed his tour, he spends several weeks visiting Bologna, Rimini, Milan, Venice, Padua, Ferrara, Naples, and the various other cities where all the schools of art may be reviewed in a general way.

'Consular Reports' for September contains an analysis of the new tariff of Jamaica, and shows its effect on trade. There is also a long list of the importers of Johannesburg in the Transvaal, and interesting reports upon the proposed reorganization of the German consular service and the education of "consular pupils," and upon roads in Silesia, and United States trade in China.

The *Geographical Journal* for September opens with a description of Patagonia, by Dr. F. P. Moreno, the results of his explorations during the last twenty-six years. Among other noteworthy facts he calls attention to the remarkable phenomenon of the apparently varying watershed. The streams on the divide "sometimes flow into the Atlantic rivers, and at other times into those of the Pacific, their course often depending on periods of rain or drought, or the shifting of sand or shingle, and also, sometimes in certain springs, on the action of rodents." He believes it possible that a great portion of the actual upheaval of the Andean Cordillera and its vicinity "took place in very modern epochs," human remains and ruins of extensive villages being found at heights where man could not now find the means of existence. Capt. G. E. Smith describes the building of a wagon-road in British East Africa to Lake Victoria, which, in connection with the railway from Mombasa, now furnishes easy and rapid communication between Uganda and the coast. It is 400 miles long, took two years to build, and cost $85,000. The growing importance of Mantchuria makes Mr. R. T. Turley's "notes of a tour" in the neutral zone between it and Korea known as "No Man's Land," of peculiar interest. It is accompanied by an admirable map. Gold is quite abundant in some of the eastern valleys, the miners being numbered by the thousands, and one extensive district "abounds in coal and splendid iron and limestone."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September contains a plea for the union of the Russian and Indian railway systems, by building a line through Afghanistan from Kushk, the terminus of the Transcaspian line, to Chaman, the terminus of the Quetta Railway. The distance is only 438 miles, the country "presents no engineering difficulties of moment," and the journey from London to India, which now occupies seventeen days, could then be accomplished in a week. The article is accompanied by a sketch map, showing the routes of the projected English, Russian, and German railways in central and western Asia. There is also an account of Vancouver's Island, the interior of which is still unexplored in some places; and notes, with illustrations, on the glacial phenomena of Colombia.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 7, contains the conclusion of the elaborate examination, by Paul Langhans, of the changes in the German and Czech population of northern Bohemia, as shown by comparing the census returns of 1890 with those of 1880. Other articles are on the geology of Haiti, a report of a journey in German East Africa, and a review of Drygalski's account of his expedition to Greenland.

Viggo Valdemar Holm, better known under his pseudonym "Woldemar," died in Copenhagen on August 28. Holm was born in Elsinore, October 25, 1855. He took the theological examination in 1881, and at the time of his death was a teacher in one of the public schools in Copenhagen. His first publication, a volume of poems of no special importance, appeared in 1884, but his reputation was first established by his 'Curious Tales from the Time of the Witches,' in which, with fine art, he reproduced the spirit and style of the three centuries preceding this. His first drama, "Gregers," was performed at the Royal Theatre with some degree of success.

—The twelfth volume of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society (1897-1899) brings the record down to February of the present year, before the new rooms of the Society were ready for occupancy. Full or partial notice, often with portraits, is taken of several deceased members, including Justin Winsor, John Amory Lowell, Amos A. Lawrence, George S. Hale, Edward L. Pierce, and Theodore Lyman. Dr. Samuel A. Green makes an important addition to previously printed lists of American imprints during the seventeenth century; and Mr. Andrew McF. Davis acutely identifies an overlooked pamphlet by Thomas Hutchinson on the subject of paper money—one more example of the unfortunate Governor's services to his native New England. Mr. A. C. Goodell, in presenting the original draught of the Address to the People of the United States adopted at the anti-Texas meeting in Faneuil Hall, January 29, 1845, shows that the first part, declaring such annexation "a plain violation of the Constitution," and that "there is no constitutional power in any branch of the Government, or all the branches of the Government, to annex a foreign state to the Union," was in Daniel Webster's handwriting. But no further was Webster ready to show his hand, and he absented himself from the meeting. Another interesting communication was made by the President, Charles Francis Adams, of a copy of a letter written to his namesake by John Quincy Adams, dated Washington, March 19, 1838. This document reads like an attempt to set the then Massachusetts Representative right with posterity regarding the Cilley-Graves duel, and his own abstention from attacking the practice of duelling at that time. His account of the affair is perfectly unpartisan and unsectional, and closes with some pregnant sentences characteristic of the Old Man Eloquent:

"The career of Mr. Cilley," says Mr.

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Adams, "is that of an ambitious Northern young man struggling to rise on a Southern platform. His fate is an exemplification of what that sort of ambition may expect. He had already announced that he had no sympathies for Indians or for human beings of a darker hue; and this declaration had already brought him golden opinions from the carnation color of the South. He seized the first possible opportunity to announce and prove himself an unerring marksman with the rifle, and to select it as his favorite weapon for settling his points of honor. The selection of his second was as intrepid as that of his instrument. All this was to display to the South and West how high he soared above the region of Yankee prejudices. A wise and just Providence, mysterious in its ways, but instructive in its doom, had ordained that his experiment should leave a monumental warning to his successors. May its lesson be understood, and not be lost!"

—The fifteen documents which are contained in volumes xlvii.-l. of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) cover a range of six years, 1661-67, and consist almost wholly of annual reports or of journals kept by the fathers at Quebec. Among the papers which are now comprised under these two heads, the most important one is a statement of the lands held by the Society in 1663. No striking change of topic thrusts itself upon one's notice in the Relations of Lalemant and Le Mercier. The Iroquois scourge is still the bane of the colony and the condition which trammels missionary effort. Of all the nations, the Mohawks are represented as being most hostile to the French and Christianity, while the Onondagas make fair professions, come on embassies, and have been even known to rescue French captives from destruction. The colony continues to grow, but not so rapidly that the arrival of 82 women and 130 laboring men in October, 1665, is not a great event. The military footing of the Laurentian communities improves with the arrival of the Marquis de Tracy and several companies of soldiers, although attempts to punish the Five Nations fail of their purpose. One watches with interest, in this second generation of Jesuit propaganda, the character of the Algonquins, who, having been Christianized in the days of Champlain, were resident at Sillery, near Quebec. Apparently, their half-agricultural life had not enervated them, for Lalemant, in his Relation for 1662-'63, describes a victory won by them over the Iroquois in which they killed a redoubtable chief named Garistatsia, "the Iron." More remarkable still, they did not burn the prisoners taken in the fight, but shot them. "Reasons of state condemned them to death, but Christian piety exempted them from the stake." Among the unusual occurrences of this period was the great earthquake of 1663. Simon describes its effects in Nova Scotia, and Lalemant is very circumstantial in his account of how, for three months, it kept the St. Lawrence white and turbid. In observing such phenomena, however, the Jesuit Father was not usually at his best.

—Among the numerous scientific parties which studded the India zone of totality during the solar eclipse of January 22, 1898, was one organized on a modest scale by the Jesuit Fathers of the Western Bengal Mission, of Saint Xavier's College, Calcutta. Their meagre resources and the nature of their instruments—largely of their own device and construction—greatly circumscribed the field of their research. Still, the diligent Fathers have the noble satisfaction, first, of having added a mite of useful information to the wealth of evidence acquired during the last eclipse, and, second, of thinking "that they were there and witnessed it." In the hope that the results of their expedition may be of some interest to the general public, the Rev. V. de Campigneulles has embodied them in a small quarto (Longmans, Green & Co.) with fourteen plates, introducing such elementary explanations as were necessary to a proper understanding of the work accomplished. As neither Calcutta nor Darjeeling was favorably placed, the Fathers (a party of twenty, including assistants) took up their station at Dumraon, near Buxar, close on the line of central eclipse. Their equipment embraced two telescopes and five cameras, and the clear Indian skies permitted their complete operation throughout. The volume closes with a chapter on the popular Hindu method of regarding an eclipse. It is a hard day for the orthodox native, who must perforce purify himself and his dwelling, prepare and eat his meals in a particular way and at discouragingly long intervals, give to the poor, and otherwise, by similar unpalatable ceremonies, attempt to avert the anger of Rahu, the mythical dragon who attempts on these occasions to devour both sun and moon. This information, however, easily accessible in numerous volumes relating to India and its customs, is conveyed in rather commonplace fashion. Of more value are the brief summaries of the labors of the other eclipse expeditions in India, both native and foreign, and the scientific conclusions drawn from experiments at Dumraon with much care and circumspection. Most of the plates, however, ample in number though they be, do no credit to either photographer or engraver; and a map of the eclipse path through India, locating all the scientific stations, would have formed a welcome addition, let alone a statement of the longitude and latitude of the camp at Dumraon, nowhere given.

—In the Leipzig *Daheim*, No. 44, Ernst Niemann has an exceptionally interesting study of the origin of the newspaper. The well-known *Acta Diurna* in Rome in the time of Cæsar has no historical connection whatever with latter-day newspaperdom. Modern journalism is not of Roman but chiefly of Germanic origin. In fact, what are now newspapers are really only developments of a kind of circulating letters which, as early as the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, passed between business houses principally in the interests of trade. These "Zeitungen," or "Tidinge," were written, but not printed. In the greater centres of population were found men who made it their occupation to send out these reports, usually to business houses, but often also to political and other authorities. Of the famous *Fugger Zeitung*, twenty-eight volumes are preserved in the University library at Heidelberg. These written circular letters, both "ordinari" and "extraordinari," as occasion required, became almost a regular institution as the postal system became generally introduced. Probably the strangest thing in connection with the history of journalism is the fact that it was exceedingly slow to make use of the art of printing for its purposes. Indeed, almost the whole sixteenth century had passed before this innovation was thought of, although, during the Reformation period, questions of public prominence were brought before the people in countless tracts, pamphlets etc., often with illustrations, but never in the shape of a regularly printed periodical. The transition to this stage was caused by the publication in 1583 of the *Relatio Historica* by Michael von Aitzing of Cologne, the success of whose printed account of a Cologne church controversy first suggested the idea of publishing every sixth month, at the time of the Frankfort Messe, a general report of the news. This undertaking soon stimulated rival enterprises. Niemann is convinced that all efforts to deny to the Germans the honor of having originated the modern newspaper must fail in the light of unprejudiced historical research. The oldest venture of this kind, however, is not, as has been generally supposed, the Frankfort *Journal*, but a certain *Relation*, which appeared probably in Strassburg, and fifty-two numbers of which, dating from the year 1609, are still found in Heidelberg. The *Journal* was not published till 1615, the first English paper, the *Weekly News*, in 1622, and the first French journal in 1630.

—One of the evils of the higher education in Russia is that the great bulk of students flock to the two leading universities of St. Petersburg and Moscow, while the attendance at the other seven is proportionally too small. The Minister of Education has recently decided that henceforth gymnasial graduates shall attend only the university of their own educational district; and in case their own district has no institution of this grade, the instructions decide where they are to go. This will seriously affect the attendance at St. Petersburg and Moscow, but raise that of the other universities. Again, the rescript determines just how many students are to be allowed to be matriculated in the coming scholastic year in the law, the medical, and the physico-mathematical faculties. Prince Meshtsherski, the well-known editor of the *Grasdanin*, approves these measures, but thinks that even more radical steps in educational reform should be taken. "The number of gymnasia and progymnasia in Russia," he says, "should be decreased by more than one-half, so that in future the influx of students insufficiently prepared and the higher education of those unworthy of the privilege would be at one blow put an end to. These gymnasia and progymnasia should be supplanted by schools with shorter courses, which would give thousands of our young men of the middle and lower classes the education they need for the practical affairs of life. So long as this step, so necessary for the salvation of Russia, is not taken, we shall gradually be heightening the unavoidable danger to Russia which consists in the fact that only about one-third of the university graduates are really useful men, while two-thirds constitute a terrible contingent of intelligence without proper foundation or nationality, which eventually will, by an irresistible law, constitute the revolutionary element in the empire."

SNELL'S FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

The Fourteenth Century. By F. J. Snell. [Periods of European Literature, edited by Prof. Saintsbury, Vol. III.] Scribners. 1899. Pp. xi, 428.

When, in 1369, that sagacious Prince Gian Galeazzo solemnized, at Milan, the flat-

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tering alliance between Violanta, his daughter, and the Duke of Clarence, the occasion was graced by the presence of no less than three of the five most distinguished writers of the fourteenth century—Petrarch, Chaucer, and Froissart. The fourth, Boccaccio, though not far off, may have been too poor or too republican to join in the festivities. The fifth and greatest, Dante, then long dead, was revered by all of the others, except, perhaps, the Frenchman; yes, even by Petrarch—suspected of jealousy—who solemnly affirms that he "delighted in both the thought and style" of the poet. Few of us could readily add a sixth name to this list, for even if Wiclif's, Langland's, and Villani's occurred to us, they would but make clear the supremacy of the five above mentioned. So Mr. Snell seems plausible when he closes his book with the words:

"Were I in love with paradox, I should say of the fourteenth century that it was not, as regards literature, a great age, but that it was an age of great men. In order to be great, an epoch must be solid, homogeneous; and the fourteenth century is a bundle of contradictions. But the greatness of individual writers—Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, Froissart, Chaucer—is beyond reach of cavil and controversy, being, indeed, all the more appreciable by reason of the mediocrity, or less, that serves them for a background."

But was not the fourteenth century, in one respect at least, a period of "solid, homogeneous" achievement? Did it not behold the revival of classical learning in Italy, which was, in the succeeding century or so, to exercise the most profound influence upon Germany, England, France, and Spain? Can any literary event of the fourteenth century, even the appearance of the 'Divine Comedy,' bear any comparison in the history of European culture with the effects of Humanism as a whole? Yet, strangely enough, this escapes our author, who is struck by the "fall of Latin as the sole, or nearly the sole, gate and garner of the fruits of research and serious thought." The fourteenth century was indeed an era of enfranchisement for the vernacular languages, but it was at the same time the opening of an era of classical scholarship, the effect of which upon the masters of the various mother-tongues has been incalculable. To neglect or obscure this renaissance, which Petrarch best represents, simply because he and his humanistic disciples did not and could not produce immortal works in the Latin tongue, is to make a history of literature synonymous with a history not of the literary spirit, but of successful literary production. Mr. Snell gives all the attention they merit to the Latin pieces of the time—Petrarch's 'Africa,' Boccaccio's 'De Genealogia Deorum,' and the rest—but the wondrous contrast between the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries in their attitude toward classical literature he seems not to appreciate fully; and yet his object is to afford the reader, "as it were, a 'bird's-eye view' of the intellectual conditions of the age" in which the great writers lived.

The difficulties of writing upon European literature nowadays are manifest. The development of philology and of historical criticism has produced, along with much positive truth, a degree of distrust and uncertainty which embarrasses the conscientious writer and distresses his reader, who is too often left wriggling upon the sharp horns of a dilemma. Was Dante's Beatrice a real girl, or, if not, what was she? Was Mistress Gemma a termagant, or "the gentle lady of consolation" who could not, perhaps, always conceal a natural irritation that her husband should openly and consistently celebrate the transcendent virtues of another? Did Dino write his chronicle? Is Froissart to be conceived as telling his inmost feelings in the first, second, or third edition of his history? When did Petrarch write his Confessions? Was he really jealous of Dante? When was Chaucer born? Did he know Italian? What of Marco Polo? Who was Piers Plowman? What does "Favel" mean? These problems and many others are judiciously dealt with by Mr. Snell. He states each skilfully, gives some idea of its importance and of the views taken by typical scholars, and then assists the reader to a provisional verdict, dictated by a saving sense of humor and proportion. In discussing the important matter of verse he is least successful. Surely, none but an expert could follow his discussion of metre, which presupposes a knowledge of the subject that only the scholar possesses. Technical terms are sometimes thoughtlessly introduced without explanation. Many would enjoy and profit by Mr. Snell's keen criticisms who are "blandly ignorant" of *joc partit*, *escondig*, and *abgesang*, and who might not be ready with a satisfactory definition of *enjambement* or *stollen*.

The circumstances in which Mr. Snell first meets his reader are unfortunate. Instead of a suave greeting, with the usual commonplaces, the first chapter, "The End of Court Poetry," plunges us into a consideration of the bewildering symptoms of decay—"signs that are strictly parallel with evidence of old age in the individual"—which had overtaken the gay poets of the preceding epoch. The next chapter, "Town-Verse and Folk-Song," is a little less dreary. It is introduced by a paragraph which gives a good idea of the spirit and style of the writer.

"It has been said that the decline of court poetry and the growth of middle-class culture are to be regarded, not as independent phenomena, but as, on the whole, the same thing contemplated from different points of view. Much of the literature already reviewed is unmistakably *bourgeois*. What makes it *bourgeois* is not so much that its professors were men of humble station or plebeian origin—that is a detail, in itself of no great importance—but the triumph of matter over manner. The Germans have a convenient phrase for expressing this trait—I do not know that we have any quite so apt—*Stoffinteresse*. Regarding the tone of the new verse (and the remark applies to both lyrical and narrative compositions) there is revealed a growing strictness, the working of a Puritanical spirit. The citizen was appreciably more serious than the knight, being not so much a social animal delighting in feast and song as a man of commerce, to whom honesty was a thing of weight, and the father of a family responsible for its decent bringing up. Possibly, also, a substantial householder—it was to such that the 'masters' did most commonly resort—accustomed to impose his ideas on a circle of admirers and hangers-on. Morality, love of home, power of the purse—out of these three factors was evolved the awful notion of respectability, always and everywhere the middle-class fetish."

Even Dante is "middle class by virtue of the purity of his moral sentiment, by virtue of his ecclesiastical-mindedness."

The chapters which follow, upon the "Rise of a New Lyric" and "Dante," are pleasant and suggestive. The conception of love is treated at great length. Mr. Snell, quite properly, scorns Signor Bartoli's opinion that "love in our sense is a quite modern invention," unknown to Dante and his contemporaries and discovered by Goethe and Byron. The personality of the critic counts for much in such matters: "If, like most of us, he is a dull, prosaic creature, enamoured of success, then he may well be baffled by the delicate, shy, all-spiritual homage of the 'Vita Nuova,' content to forego its reward. To poets, however, the sentiment is quite intelligible." The great historic value and interest of the 'Convivio,' a first effort towards a popularization of science, is missed by Mr. Snell, who, like his predecessors, esteems it chiefly "for the aid which it affords towards deciphering the more difficult passages of the 'Commedia.'"

Petrarch's personality is admirably depicted. His seeming insincerities, upon which sundry flippant writers have fondly insisted, are properly disposed of in a sentence or two. "The truth is, Petrarch at each moment writes as he feels. He is a slave, not of circumstances, but of his own passing mood." The poet's claim to immortality as a scholar, as the father of Humanism, is, however, as already noted, almost entirely neglected by the writer, to whom the investigations of Voigt, Körting, and De Nolhac are apparently unfamiliar.

Mr. Snell is inclined to put Boccaccio, "the educator of his time," nearly upon the same plane as Petrarch:

"In disposition, however, Boccaccio was the antipodes of a schoolmaster. He did not exist to teach, to inculcate prudence and morality. He existed to enjoy; and because he found pleasure the ideal of antiquity, therefore antiquity interested him. From the charnel-house of the unlovely Middle Age the voluptuous Florentine hastened with nimble foot into the parterre of the old world, radiant with nature and with art. Filled with the spirit of revolt, he did without paltering what Petrarch did with hesitancy and fear."

This is unfair to Petrarch in so far as his nature, more profoundly religious than his friend's, would never have surrendered to superstitious fears as did Boccaccio upon a certain memorable occasion.

The last third of Mr. Snell's volume is devoted to "The Well of English," Chaucer and Gower to the "Chroniclers and Travellers," Villani, Dino, Marco Polo, Maundeville; and closes with a somewhat misty chapter upon "Allegory, Mysticism, and Reform," which, the writer holds, tended to coalesce.

The book before us has the sterling merits of scholarship, breadth, clearness, keen insight, humor, originality, and sincerity. The author has, however, found it necessary to resort to the most artificial nexus in order to give his heterogeneous themes a factitious literary unity; and it is a little hard at times to sympathize with his ideas of proportion. A good many details are inserted here and there which do not help us to estimate better the creations of the several writers. On the other hand, those things which we should know in order to see just why the five literary heroes of the century are really great and their works deservedly immortal, are by no means always given us by Mr. Snell, who seems to view his readers as he might a literary acquaintance at the club. He assumes much in order not to bore the well-instructed listener, uses the most colloquial terms—"making a 'good thing,'" "netting 430,000 ducats," "goings on of the Flagellants," "shows up' the ill breeding," etc.—in short, treats us as men and

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brethren. Upon occasion he can, however, be painfully elementary; when, for instance, he carefully describes that familiar domestic utensil the funnel, for fear some one may be misled into supposing Dante's Hell to resemble the funnel of a locomotive. Had Mr. Snell treated the secondary literatures, notably that of Wales, in a more general fashion, the volume could, by the sacrifice of some other details, have been made a truer and more edifying picture of *European* letters during the period—and that, after all, is his theme, not the various national literatures.

We have observed but few and unimportant inaccuracies, such as placing Petrarch's birthday in January instead of July, and attributing the best English translation of the 'Convito' to "Mr.," instead of Miss, Hillard. Is there not some mistake, too, in the statement that Petrarch interposed his good offices and obtained Rienzi's release from prison at Avignon on the ground that the extribune was a poet? In Ep. Fam., xiii, 6, Petrarch represents himself as a highly amused and half-disgusted, but quite passive, spectator of the *people's* demand that the reputed poet be saved. And are we not in duty bound to confess sadly that a misapprehension of our practical politics underlies the reflection—"When we find men like Petrarch preferred to high official positions . . . and intrusted with important diplomatic charges, we are naturally reminded of similar honors paid to literature by successive Governments of the United States"?

GOTHIC ARCHITECTURE IN CYPRUS.

L'Art Gothique et la Renaissance en Chypre. By C. Enlart. Two volumes. Illustrated. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1899.

M. Enlart, to whom we are already indebted for several important works on the architecture of the Middle Ages, among them, 'Origines Françaises de l'Architecture Gothique en Italie' and 'Les Origines de l'Architecture Gothique en Espagne et en Portugal,' has just published two volumes on the Gothic architecture of the island of Cyprus, which give the results of investigations undertaken under the auspices of the French Minister of Public Instruction, during the year 1896.

The work is divided into two parts, which treat respectively of the religious architecture and the civil and military architecture of the island in the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. After its seizure by Richard I. of England, and its transfer to Guy de Lusignan in 1192, the French promptly settled in the island and began to erect architectural works in a modified form of the Gothic style of the close of the twelfth century. These were followed, during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, by extensive monuments, in which the Gothic of France in those periods is largely followed. Towards the close of the fourteenth century, the monuments begin to show influences from the South of France and elsewhere. Still later, a bastard architecture, made up of late Gothic, Romanesque, and Byzantine elements, appears; while, last of all, the style of the Renaissance engrafts itself upon this mixed form of art.

In the first chapter the author discusses the general character of Cyprian architecture from the close of the twelfth century to the sixteenth century. In the first period, he finds that the general proportions are short as compared with the Gothic of France; and a tendency, natural to such a climate, to reduce the slant of roofs is soon manifest. In the earlier vaulting certain archaisms are noticeable. The transverse ribs are heavy, the ribs of apsidal vaults are made to converge on the transverse rib of the choir, and the smaller apses are sometimes covered with half-domed vaults. These and other kindred characteristics occur in the transitional architecture of the North of France, but are generally not met with after the middle of the twelfth century.

The vaults of the edifices of the second period are described as having the lightness, the solidity, and the elegance of the best work of the Middle Ages in France itself. The imposts of piers are carried up to a considerable height in horizontal courses, in which the various members in each course are cut out of a single stone—a method of construction frequently employed by the later French Gothic architects, and one which had great value in Cyprus, since it fortified the building against the effects of earthquake shocks, to which they were often subjected.

In the fourth and fifth periods—that is, during the second half of the fourteenth century and the whole course of the century following—the construction became more and more heavy, and at length the Gothic forms were abandoned for simple groined vaults, barrel vaults, and domes. Groined vaults were sometimes placed over oblong bays, and such vaults were formed by the interpenetration of two pointed barrel vaults of equal span, one of which was extended on either side beyond the groins. The flying buttress, in these buildings, is used with logic and skill, though in style it has the character of the late Gothic. The circular opening of the west façade was employed from the beginning of the thirteenth century; but in some of the more important churches a great pointed window takes the place of the rose. Deeply splayed portals, surmounted with ornamental gables and enriched with sculpture, are numerous; but the splays are rarely adorned with statues, and they often consist of plain panelled surfaces instead of shafted orders. The archivolts and crocketed gables of these portals are frequently of great refinement and beauty, but the sculptured tympanum appears to have been rare. The tympanum is usually a plain surface ornamented with arcading, or with mouldings in the form of tracery. In many cases it is quite plain, and was probably adorned with painting, of which, indeed, traces are sometimes found. Only one sculptured tympanum, M. Enlart tells us, has been discovered, and that one was sold and exported by Cesnola.

In the second chapter the various sources of influence are more fully discussed. These sources are chiefly the North of France, Champagne, the South of France, and Spain. Chapter iii. gives an account of the city of Nikosia, of its buildings, and of its monuments which have disappeared; while chapters iv. to xii. inclusive, give the history and a detailed architectural analysis of each important church. Chapter xiii. begins the second volume, in which the history and description of the monuments are continued to chapter xvi., which treats of tombs. Then follows part second, which is divided into six chapters, treating of civil and military architecture, and of the minor arts.

The two most important buildings are St. Sophia of Nikosia and the cathedral of Famagusta. St. Sophia, begun in the last decade of the twelfth century, presents a curious mixture of Gothic, Romanesque, and even classic features. The vaulting of its nave is in square compartments, while the compartments of the aisles are oblong. The common Gothic arrangement is thus reversed. The lower piers are round columns without subordinate shafts, and their octagonal capitals and bases are without sculptured ornamentation. The general proportions of the building are low, and the vaulting has no timber covering in either nave or aisles. There is, therefore, no gable, and there is no triforium. The columns of the apse are of classic form and proportions, and they are crowned with rich Corinthian capitals. On the outside are flying buttresses of early Gothic form, but the openings of both aisles and clerestory are small, leaving broad wall-surfaces between the buttresses. The cathedral of Famagusta is later: its architect seems to have come from Champagne, and the building has many features which indicate an influence from that French province. The plan is very simple, consisting only of nave and aisles, with an eastern apse and two subordinate apses, but with no apsidal aisle. The bays of the nave are in this case of the normal Gothic oblong form, but in other respects the general character of the interior resembles that of St. Sophia. The east end, though much more simple, owing to the absence of an apsidal aisle, bears a strong likeness to that of Reims, and the design of the western façade seems likewise to have been derived from the same source.

Under the head of Military Architecture, the numerous and extensive remains of châteaux which have survived in Cyprus are described. But the mediæval fortress had not much in any part of the world that can be properly called architectural character, though the exigencies of mediæval warfare, and the manner in which a château of the Middle Ages accommodates itself to the nature of the broken ground, or crag, on which it stands, give it a picturesque charm which is wanting to modern military works. The châteaux described in this book differ in no essential features from those which were common to all parts of Europe.

The Cyprian houses, bridges, aqueducts, and cisterns are also fully described. But, as the author remarks, the civil architecture, here as elsewhere, differs in no distinct manner from the religious architecture. It is at first mostly French in style, sometimes Aragonese, and later Italian, very little modified in adaptation to the Eastern climate. Some of the houses of the higher class have windows and other features of much beauty. The doorways have often elaborately moulded and carved archivolts, and the windows are elegantly shafted, and sometimes furnished with tracery. In the later period, corbelled balconies occur, and the edifice is adorned with angle shafts.

In the concluding chapter, M. Enlart remarks that his book gives in reality a chapter in the history of French art; that the mediæval monuments of Cyprus not only belong to that history, but complete it, since the well-known paucity of architectural works in France itself during the fourteenth

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century, due to the disasters of the Hundred Years' War, leaves a gap which is filled by those monuments. No building of the same epoch in France offers at once the importance and the unity of the cathedral of Famagusta. It will be observed, he continues, that if that edifice is an imitation of the cathedrals of Reims, of St. Urbain of Troyes, and of some monuments of the South of France, it nevertheless has the character of an original work in consequence of the logical manner in which the various original elements are adapted to the conditions of climate and to the local material resources. Nevertheless, he further says, it must be admitted that the architecture of Cyprus offers examples of unintelligent and indefensible use of borrowed features, as in the bringing together of Gothic and Byzantine forms. His remarks here are instructive and cogent: and his emphatic protest against the notion of a derivation of Gothic architecture from the Byzantine domed system will commend itself to most students of the subject.

M Enlart's wide acquaintance at first hand with the mediæval architecture of nearly all countries, his clear understanding of the principles and characteristic features of its various types, and his technical, as well as scholarly, training, give his works a solid value beyond what is common, and make his publications real contributions to knowledge. The present book is a model of clear and accurate descriptive writing, and its general make-up is superb, though suitably plain. The illustrations in the text, which consist mainly of process cuts from the author's own drawings, are admirable examples of architectural delineation, and the few half-tone prints which are included are remarkably clear and fine, while the thirty-four heliotype plates from photographs are singularly beautiful examples of work by this process. It is worthy of notice that French book-makers do not find the use of highly calendered paper, with its offensive gloss, necessary for the successful printing of process blocks and half-tones. The paper used in this book is of the best quality, having a fine texture on both sides, and being entirely free from gloss.

Napoleon's Invasion of Russia. By Hereford B. George, Fellow of New College, Oxford. With maps and plans. New Amsterdam Book Co. 8vo, pp. xvi, 451.

In his 'Battles of English History,' Mr. George proves his capacity to seize firmly the principles of strategy, and to describe clearly the progress of a battle. He has done more to justify his lectureship on Military History at Oxford by this new work on the "Campaign of Moscow," based on a review of original sources of the history. There was room, as he rightly judged, for a distinctively English work on the great invasion, in the movement now making to give English-speaking soldiers something like an adequate military library in their own tongue.

The English point of view implies rooted hostility to Napoleon's politics and unsparing denunciation of the unscrupulousness of the man; but the author gives a fair estimate of the Emperor's great military talents and his ability as an organizing and administrative ruler. The central point in his judgment of the results of the campaign is his conclusion that the main cause of disaster was the enormous magnitude of the scale on which the war was planned, surpassing the powers even of Napoleon to guide and administer his army in the conditions of transportation and communication existing at the time. The invasion, he argues, broke down mainly of its own weight and the physical impossibility of feeding so vast a host, either from the sparsely inhabited country through which it marched, or from its distant depots in the rear. There is nothing original in this view, though Mr. George emphasizes it more than other historians, and makes it more completely the explanation of the ruin of Napoleon's plans.

On the Russian side, he makes Kutusoff's caution in following up the retreat responsible for the failure to capture Napoleon himself and to destroy the French army before it reached even Smolensk. One of the noteworthy minor points of the book is the defence of Tchitchagoff, who has commonly been held to have blundered greatly in his efforts to prevent the French from crossing the Beresina. The common opinion seems still the better one, despite the apologetics of Mr. George, who loses his judicial balance in the advocate. He begins by saying that Kutusoff's warning to his subordinate to take care that the French did not cross *below* the high road to Minsk was probably with a purpose to let the French pass, cunningly thinking "that it was easier to get Tchitchagoff out of the way by false information than by direct orders" (p. 351). But Tchitchagoff already knew the French were reconnoitring above as well as below the main crossing at Borisov when he recalled his detachments which were guarding the upper river; yet a few pages of advocacy have brought Mr. George to the assertion that "*his orders* were the main reason why Tchitchagoff did not oppose the passage more effectually" (p. 368).

In a similar way he asserts (pp. 344, 367) for Oudinot the selection of the place for the French crossing at Studianka, as against the credit usually given Napoleon himself, though he has referred to Napoleon's letter to Oudinot "bidding him seize the ford at Veselovo, a village situated about fifteen miles above Borisov, where the map indicated a ford, and there make his bridges" (p. 342). Marbot, who was there, says that Studianka was practically a part of Veselovo: "C'est précisemment en face de Zembin qu'est situé le village de Veselovo, dont le hameau de Studianka est une dépendance" (Marbot, iii., 193); while Fezensac, another eye-witness (whom Mr. George prefers to Marbot for authority), describes the bridges and the ford as at Veselovo, not mentioning Studianka at all (Fezensac, L. ii., chap. vi.). The fact was that Gen. Corbineau, commanding a brigade of light cavalry, making his way to Oudinot's corps from that of Wrede, had been guided to the ford by peasants, and so had escaped capture by the Russians. He reported its situation to both Oudinot and Napoleon, thus identifying it as the one marked on Napoleon's map. Corbineau was Marbot's close comrade in the cavalry of the second corps, and Marbot's means of knowledge is thus shown.

But Marbot, in his memoirs, while giving full credit to Oudinot for personal bravery, has compared to his disadvantage his general military ability with that of Marshal Saint-Cyr. Mr. George regards Oudinot more highly, and, as to his operations near the Beresina, says he "was doing his work admirably," though his lack of self-confidence is shown by his "imploring the Emperor to come and direct in person operations so critical" (p. 347). It seems to be for the purpose of maintaining his estimate of Oudinot that he systematically depreciates the value of Marbot's memoirs, for it is only in regard to the passage of the Beresina that Marbot is available as a witness. Mr. George's narrative of this event follows Marbot closely in so many particulars, and differs from him in so few, that one is inclined to think Marbot the principal basis for the detailed description in the English version.

In the difference about the question of the location of the bridges, the Frenchman is plainly right. Another difference is about Marbot's incidental explanation that Corbineau's perilous march across country was occasioned by his being kept with Wrede's corps of Bavarians without authority till, on a demand for the asserted authority and the failure to produce it, Corbineau broke away to join his proper corps. As to this, Mr. George dismisses it with the light assertion that "Marbot's authority is not worth a farthing." Certain it is that Corbineau rejoined his corps in an irregular way, by a perilous and unsupported march, and fortunately located the ford of the Beresina while doing so. His own account of it would be that current among his comrades, and this airy rejection of Marbot's version will hurt chiefly Mr. George's reputation for sound historical methods. Most readers of Marbot have been struck with the way in which the numberless incidents of his personal narrative fit into the larger history and give and receive mutual corroboration. That he should fall into occasional errors is a matter of course. Mr. George finds no contemporaneous writer always accurate; there are national tendencies to illusion and personal ones everywhere. But we believe the most thorough work in investigation will give greatest weight to Marbot's good faith and intelligence.

The historical points thus mooted are so incidental, and affect so little the general judgments of the campaign, that they might well have been omitted. The question of the historical value of so noteworthy a book as Marbot's memoirs, so jauntily propounded and answered, is of quite another sort, and may be of more consequence to Mr. George's standing as an historian than to Marbot's.

The Life and Work of Thomas Dudley, the Second Governor of Massachusetts. By Augustine Jones, A.M., LL.B. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 484.

It is seldom that a reviewer can calmly copy a masterpiece of writing from a previous author, and have it exactly fit the requirements of the present case. But we venture to take a few lines from Macaulay's review of the Life of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, printed sixty-five years ago, which are so strangely applicable to this Life of Dudley that we dare not try to be original. Macaulay writes:

"The book is large and the style heavy. The information which Mr. Thackeray has obtained from the State Paper Office is new, but much of it is very uninteresting. The rest of his narrative is very little better than Gifford's or Tomline's Life of the second Pitt, and tells us nothing that may not be found quite as well told in the Parliamentary History, the Annual Register, and other works equally common."

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This description hits Mr. Jones's book in every respect but one. He does not seem to have made any original investigations. We cannot recall a single document "now printed for the first time," but he is copious in citation from printed books. Again, Lord Chatham was a great man, a powerful factor in the events of the last century. He belongs to the history of a great nation, and his life was and will be of engrossing interest to thousands of readers. Thomas Dudley was not a great man, his field of influence was very limited, and he is entitled to very little space in any history of his times.

Macaulay farther makes, in this same review, a very just remark when he writes: "Almost every intellectual employment has a tendency to produce some intellectual malady. Biographers, translators, editors, all, in short, who employ themselves in illustrating the lives or the writings of others, are peculiarly exposed to the *Lues Boswelliana*, or disease of admiration." Mr. Jones has a hero—one can hardly understand why—and he proceeds to rewrite the history of Massachusetts for a generation, merely to drag his hero out of the ruck and pose him as the great controller of events. This is unjust to all of Dudley's contemporaries, and merely shows the lack of mental perspective in the biographer. Dudley was one of a score of high officials who acted as governors, deputies, and soldiers. In much of his work he is recorded as only one of a board, and it is absurd to rewrite the history of that period, without any new facts, merely to say that Dudley did this or that, where better authorities write that the Assistants or the General Court acted. Dudley was not the peer of Winthrop, of Vane, of Bellingham, and certainly not of Increase Mather. By general consent he has been regarded as a fine specimen of the ultra-Puritan: bigoted, honest, just, and self-righteous, unlovely to the last degree, but in no sense a living influence even in his own time. Massachusetts became prosperous not through him and his like, but in spite of them. When in power he nearly wrecked the infant colony by his Puritanic opposition to the mother country. In fact, he seems to have been a civilized prototype of "Oom Paul."

It is not becoming for us to set up our anonymous opinion upon the facts of history, but we can and do fall back upon the deliberate verdict of the greatest expert in New England history. In John Gorham Palfrey, Massachusetts had an historian of vast erudition and rare discretion. Practically there is nothing found in this volume which had not been read and weighed by Palfrey, except the little details gleaned from those old letters and collections so dear to the amateur writer. Palfrey possessed every qualification of an historian except the gift of genius. His industry is great, his judgment clear, his impartiality beyond dispute, but he is as cold, as well as clear, as crystal. One is slow to begin to read him on account of his unattractiveness, but is led on, page after page, as in a mathematical disquisition, fascinated by the precision of statement employed. Now with such a guide the truth is easily obtainable, and herein is our justification for our estimate of Mr. Jones's work.

Palfrey, in his History, gives Dudley just the proper amount of attention to which he was entitled. He says of him (ii., 411):

"His well-known capacity, experience, and scrupulous fidelity to every trust made him an object of implicit respect. His integrity was unimpeachable; his superiority to influences of human blame or favor was above question; the fear of God was an ever-present and deciding motive to him; no man, in public action, had a more single eye to the public welfare. . . . He belonged to the class of men who are commended, confided in and revered, but not loved. If hasty, he was not revengeful; he never meant to be unjust, and he did sincerely mean to be magnanimous; but he wanted the qualities to conciliate and win. . . . He was positive, prejudiced, undemonstrative, austere."

As we have intimated, this book is entirely superfluous, as the verdict of history is not to be set aside because an enthusiast tries to make a palimpsest of all previous authorities and to write Dudley in big letters where the names of other and better men stood.

A very characteristic test of our author is to be found in his diffuse and ill-judged statements about the Dudley pedigree. The first fifty pages or more of this book are taken up with an attempt to trace Thomas Dudley's ancestry. We have pages about the noble Dudleys, pictures of their mansions, long episodes about Dudley's supposed patrons and friends; but the fact remains that the family tree ends with Dudley's father, a certain Capt. Roger Dudley, who remains nothing but a name. In 1865 the late John Gough Nichols, kindest of men and most sagacious of critics, printed, in volume second of his *Herald and Genealogist*, a careful review of a book on the Dudley family, written by George Adlard, an Englishman. This history is the sole authority for Mr. Jones, and contains all the surmises, theories, and misstatements which have since passed current among the Dudleys. Mr. Nichols plainly, but courteously, pointed out that the pedigree ceased with Roger Dudley, and that there was not even a reasonable ground of surmise to connect Thomas Dudley with any family in England. It is true that Gov. Thomas Dudley used an armorial seal, but his son Joseph Dudley used another seal of arms, differing from his father's.

It is beyond a question that a noted patronymic may be a curse, by evoking preposterous claims on the strength of a coincidence. Nothing but the best will do for the pretender. Boss Tweed was presented with the arms of the Marquess of Tweeddale, whose name was Hay; the Earl of Derby, who is a Stanley, had his arms copied by a Derby; George III. is said to have greeted William Tudor of Boston as a relative on the strength of his name; and every peer with a territorial title may expect numerous untraceable cousins. So in regard to Dudley. It is a territorial name, and is in itself no proof of any relationship to the owner of the land rather than to any serf thereon. Such claims are ridiculous, and should be persistently denounced.

We do not intend by any means to deny a certain merit to Mr. Jones. He is beyond question industrious and apparently honest in his views; but, in this busy age, a book must have a reason for its existence if it be not strangled at its birth. Mr. Jones has not the happy faculty of pleasing narration, and his book reads like the contents of a student's scrap-book. It seems probable that it will be as quickly forgotten now as the Governor was himself after 1653. It is a pity that Mr. Jones did not turn his attention rather to the children of Gov. Thomas. His son, Gov. Joseph Dudley, was far more able than his father, and his period has not been so exhaustively treated. The history of the first generation of the founders of Massachusetts is closed, except in the improbable event of some great discovery of manuscripts, and should be left to repose with the question of the Junius Letters, the legend of the Regicides, and the identity of Mother Goose.

Life and Nature at the English Lakes. By H. D. Rawnsley. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

Canon Rawnsley was the intimate friend of more than one great English poet; he is well known to readers of biography for his memoirs of Thring and of the Bishop of Carlisle; his 'Literary Associations of the English Lakes' is, however, his best-known work. The present book, though a much slighter performance, is full of interest. It is a series of short sketches of Lake life, with some interesting reminiscences of Southey, who rivals Wordsworth in the Canon's hero-worship.

A Manchester man, with a passion for the country, Canon Rawnsley writes of his visits to the Lake with a peculiar fervor that carries his reader away. The lyrical note of his style, which is occasionally somewhat florid, is redeemed by its perfect sincerity and geniality.

"To-day," he writes of a March visit to Ambleside, "the lake gleamed through every copse, and mixed its silver with the tasselled alder and the yellowing larches; to-day the walls on this side were clothed in emerald velvet of mossy grace, and on that side the hornbeam hedgerows ran bronzed like beaten copper, or, where the sun smote on them, twinkled into ruddy gold. . . . I gazed upon the Fairfield ridge with Rydal woods all blue and radiant beneath its winter crown and cloak of ivory, while the lily tarn at my feet lay like a sapphire set round with bracken gold."

There are bits of beautiful descriptive writing in all the essays. Take the April hunt for ravens in the Dead Crags of Skiddaw:

"The blackness of the heather has ceased. There has come in its place just that rich darkness that tells us there is life in all the seeming deadness, and sap in every point and twisted bunch of stems. The boulder stones are radiant with mosses; the very peatbogs and morasses shine to-day with many-colored counterfeits of life. Yes, this carpet of the winter's and the storm-winds' weaving has felt the foot of April, and cannot delay or disavow the spring" (p. 23).

The writer is thoroughly familiar with the life of the shepherds. The account of the sheep-dog trials at Troutbeck, of a sheep-washing, and of the shepherd assembly on Helvellyn will make many a tourist feel that his summer acquaintance with the Lake country is superficial. Canon Rawnsley's account of Lake-side customs, of rush-bearing at Ambleside, or the keeping of Daffodil Day at Cockermouth, is a reassurance to those who lament the decadence of English country manners. A curious interest attaches to his picture of the Coleridge and Southey household at Greta Hall, and of Cuthbert, the last of the Southeys, whose funeral he describes. Mr. Ellis Yarnall's book has recently deepened the perennial interest of the general reader in the associations of the English lakes with English poetry; Canon Rawnsley's last contribution to the subject is sure of a welcome.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baker, R. S. The Boy's Book of Inventions. Doubleday & McClure. $2.
Bate, P. H. English Pre-Raphaelite Painters. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $12.00.
Brady, J. E. Tales of the Telegraph. Doubleday & McClure. $1.25.
Brandes, G. William Shakespeare: A Critical Study. New ed. Macmillan. $2.60.
Breyfogle, W. L. Sense and Satire. Rand, McNally & Co.
Burnham, S. M. Biographical Sketches of Some Ancient People. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $2.
Chase, C. H. Elementary Principles of Economics. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Colby, Prof. F. M. Outlines of General History. American Book Co.
Cross, S. C. The Negro and the Sunny South. Martinsburg, W. Va.: Samuel C. Cross. 50c.
Davis, C. H. Life of Rear-Admiral C. H. Davis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
D'Esterre, Gerald and Dolly. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.
Dickens, Charles. Pickwick Papers. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $1.
Ford, P. L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. X. Putnams.
For Love's Sweet Sake. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Gardiner, G. B. Cicero de Officiis. London: Methuen & Co.
Garland, Hamlin. Main-Travelled Roads. New ed. Macmillan. $1.50.
Gibson, C. D. Sketches in Egypt. Doubleday & McClure. $3.
Grinnell, G. B. Jack, the Young Ranchman. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Hale, W. T. An Autumn Lane, and Other Poems. Nashville, Tenn.: Publishing House M. E. Church, South. $1.
Heath, Gertrude E. Rhymes and Jingles. Cincinnati: Editor Publishing Co.
Herford, O. Child's Primer of Natural History. Scribners. $1.25.
Hewlett, M. Little Novels of Italy. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hill, J. A. Stories of the Railroad. Doubleday & McClure. $1.50.
Hope, Anthony. The King's Mirror. D. Appleton & Co.
Hurll, Estelle M. Raphael. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hussey, E. On Account of Sarah. Lippincott.
Jones, H. A. Carnac Sahib. Macmillan. 75c.
Keeler, C. A. A First Glance at the Birds. San Francisco: D. P. Elder & Morgan Shepard. 50c.
Kipling, Rudyard. Stalky & Co. Doubleday & McClure. $1.50.
Macaulay, Lord. Francis Bacon. Cassells. 10c.
MacGrath, H. Arms and the Woman. Doubleday & McClure. $1.25.
Mason, A. E. W. Miranda of the Balcony. Macmillan. $1.50.
Mayo-Smith, Prof. R. Statistics and Economics. Part 2. Macmillan.
McClure, Prof. J. G. K. The Great Appeal. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75c.
Mikalowitch, N. Numa's Vision. Chicago: Nicholas Michels. 50c.
Mitchell, D. G. American Lands and Letters. Scribners. $2.50.
Morgan, Rev. G. C. The True Estimate of Life. Fleming H. Revell Co. 30c.
Munroe, Kirk. Midshipman Stuart. Scribners. $1.25.
Murison, A. F. King Robert the Bruce. [Famous Scots Series.] Scribners. 75c.
Myres, Prof. J. L., and Ohnefalsch-Richter, Prof. M. A Catalogue of the Cyprus Museum. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.
Neufeld, C. A Prisoner of the Khaleefa. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Nicholson, Prof. H. H., and Avery, S. Laboratory Exercises. Henry Holt & Co. 60c.
Ouida. La Strega. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
Paterson, Virginia S. Dickey Downy. Philadelphia: A. F. Rowland. 60c.
Penfield, F. C. Present-Day Egypt. The Century Co.
Pollock, Sir F., and Maitland, Mrs. F. The Etchingham Letters. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Poole, Prof. R. L. Historical Atlas of Modern Europe. Part 23. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Reinach, S. Répertoire des Vases Peints Grecs et Etrusques. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 5 francs.
Rodway, J. In Guiana Wilds. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Rostand, E. La Princesse Lointaine. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Rutherford, M. The Revolution in Tanner's Lane. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Ryan, T. Recollections of an Old Musician. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Sayce, Rev. A. H. Babylonians and Assyrians. Scribners. $1.25.
Scott, Eva. Rupert Prince Palatine. London: A. Constable & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Shafer, L. A. The Cup Races. New York: R. H. Russell.
Shakespeare, W. Merchant of Venice. Macmillan. 25c.
Shakespeare, W. Macbeth. Hamlet. As You Like It. Othello. [Chiswick Edition.] 4 vols. Macmillan. 35c. each.
Sheldon, C. M. Lend a Hand. Fleming H. Revell & Co. 30c.
Simpson, E. B. Robert Louis Stevenson's Edinburgh Days. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Smith, Myra M. Demands of Society. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Spanhoofd, A. W. Lehrbuch der Deutschen Sprache. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Stimpson, H. B. The Tory Maid. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Stimson, F. J. King Noanett. New ed. Scribners. $1.
Stratemeyer, E. To Alaska for Gold. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Stuart, Eleanor. Averages. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Tarde, G. Social Laws. Macmillan. $1.25.
Thomas, E. Roman Life under the Cæsars. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Thompson, Rev. H. L. Henry George Liddell. Henry Holt & Co.
Townsend, W. G. P. Embroidery. Truslove, Hanson & Comba.
Waters, T. F. Sketch of the Life of John Winthrop the Younger. Ipswich, Mass.: Ipswich Historical Society.
Wentworth, G. A. Solid Geometry. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85c.
White, Horace. Appian's Roman History. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Whiteing, R. The Island. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel Co. $1.25.
Wilkins, Mary E. The Jamesons. Philadelphia: Curtis Publishing Co.; New York: Doubleday & McClure. 50c.
Williamson, G. C. Bernardino Luini. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Wilson, R. Laurel Leaves. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
Windle, B. C. A. Shakespeare's Country. London: Methuen & Co.; Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 75c.
Wise, J. S. Diomed. Macmillan.
Zack. On Trial. Scribners. $1.50.

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OCTOBER

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

Edited by Professor NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

ARTICLES.—Philosophy at Oxford, by F. C. S. Schiller; Historical Development of School Reading Books, by R. R. Reeder; Minor Problems of the School Superintendent, by Frank A. Fitzpatrick; A New Revival, by Andrew F. West; The Harvard Reform in Entrance Requirements, by Albert Bushnell Hart; Educational Journalism: an Inventory, by C. W. Bardeen; and Some Criticisms of the Kindergarten, by Nicholas Murray Butler.

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